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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 28, 1897.

The Week.

President McKinley may thank his stars that England rejected his free-silver proposals. If they had been accepted and reported to Congress, we should have seen a financial panic worse than that of 1893, and should have been face to face with an unparalleled political betrayal—nothing less than that of the chief of the party opposed to free silver at 16 to 1 doing his best to force free silver upon us at 15½ to 1. The very proposals which Senator Wolcott made in the name of the Government of the United States constitute a political scandal. When he told Lord Salisbury, as he did according to the official account of the conference, that "the American envoys had accepted the ratio of 15½ to 1," did he speak with President McKinley's authority? If he did not, there should be an instant disclaimer from Washington. If he did, we hope to hear no more of the opposition of the Administration to "Bryanism." Mr. McKinley has out-Bryaned Bryan. Moreover, there was not a word in Senator Wolcott's proposals looking to the maintenance of the gold standard; not a word about keeping silver up to a parity with gold; all was in the interest of free coinage of silver, pure and simple, and the gold standard might go hang. If Congress does not inquire into this scandal and demand the full correspondence and the text of Senator Wolcott's instructions, it will be recreant to its duty. Meanwhile, the firmness of the Indian Government, and the vigorous protests of English bankers and merchants, have saved not only England from the folly of her rulers, but the United States as well from the folly of their Government.

Platt is determined to connect the President with his fight against good government if it can possibly be done. He seems to have put great pressure on Gen. Butterworth, of the borough of Ohio, to get aid from him in this direction, for the General said in his speech in Brooklyn on Monday week: "On the evening of the 2d of November a telegraph message will be anxiously awaited at the White House. President McKinley said to me night before last, 'Ben, you know how earnestly I feel in regard to the triumph of the Republican party in Greater New York.'" That puts the President in the most attractive light before the machine workers, for what could be more winning than this picture of him laying his hand upon the General's shoulder

and calling him "Ben"? And what a glorious triumph it will be for the "Republican party in Greater New York" if, in consequence of Platt's exertions, the effort to give it honest government shall be defeated and the city turned over to Tammany Hall for four years! The picture of a President of the United States yearning for a triumph of this sort is one of the most extraordinary ever laid before the country.

Secretary Cornelius N. Bliss presided last week at a Platt-Tracy ratification meeting in this city. The only object of that meeting was to persuade Republican citizens that they should throw away their votes upon Gen. Tracy, rather than give them to Mr. Low, because it is of more importance to save the "Republican organization" from humiliation than it is to save the city from Tammany rule. If Gen. Tracy were out of the field, there would not be a shadow of a doubt of Mr. Low's election. He remains in the field because Platt keeps him there, and Platt's excuse for keeping him there is that the Citizens' Union refused to cooperate with him in the selection of its candidate. Mr. Bliss said in January, 1896, that Platt was a politician "who deliberately acts so as to make it impossible for self-respecting men to be allied with him even for a good purpose." Is not that the exact position which the Citizens' Union took when it refused to confer with Platt? Mr. Bliss said also in January, 1896, that Platt's machine was based on an enrolment unprecedentedly "rotten," that it could not "command the confidence of the Republican party nor of the public," that it was "fraudulent and illegal," that "honest Republicans cannot support it, nor is there any basis on which they can cooperate with the men who have secured control of it by means of frauds which they refuse to undo." Mr. Platt and the organization which Mr. Bliss is now defending and supporting are precisely what they were in 1896. There has been no change whatever, except for the worse.

The distinction between "the organization" and the party, which Platt is making so clear in this city, has been brought home to the people of Pennsylvania more plainly than ever before by the President's gift of the consulate at Matanzas, Cuba, to State Senator Saylor. The Republicans of the Keystone State by an overwhelming majority are honest and respectable citizens, who want only honest and respectable men sent to represent this nation abroad; Senator Saylor was shown, a few months ago, to have been engaged in a disgrace-

ful attempt to collect hundreds of dollars from the State Treasury to which he had no claim. The facts in the case were notorious, for Gov. Hastings set them forth in a message vetoing the theft. The scandal was so gross that the Quay machine shrank from the idea of nominating the swindler for a second term, because it feared that such a course would lose the party the county from which he comes. Self-respecting members of the Republican party throughout the State supposed that Saylor's political career was ended, and only regretted that he could not be sent to prison for his crime: "The organization," however, regarded Senator Saylor's attempt to swindle his fellow-citizens, not as an offence which should disqualify him for any place in the public service, but only as a reason why he should be given an office in which he would represent the United States in a foreign country. Quay, Penrose, and the rest asked President McKinley to give him such a place. As soon as this impudent scheme was broached, Mr. McKinley was advised of Saylor's disgraceful record by members of the Republican party not belonging to "the organization"—prominent citizens of Philadelphia, who are reputable business men. "The organization," however, was not at all disturbed by this protest from the ranks of the party, and its composure was justified by the result.

Chattanooga, Tenn., had a city election about the same time with Indianapolis, and the voters decided it in the same way—on the merits of the candidates, and without reference to their attitude on national issues. It happened in Chattanooga, as in Indianapolis, that the successful Democratic candidate was a silver man, but it was a mere chance, as was the fact that for the past six years the Tennessee city has had Democratic mayors who were "gold-bugs," although a majority of the voters are Republicans in national politics. The explanation of the silver man's success in Chattanooga was the fact that he had the cordial support of all Democrats and of many Republicans, on his merits as a candidate. In like manner the Silver Democrat who ran for reelection in Indianapolis was supported by the Gold Democrats, on the ground that "the National Democratic party believes that national questions should have no place in any city election"; and that, while they emphatically repudiated and denounced the free-silver declaration in the platform on which Mayor Taggart was running, yet, "believing that his administration has been, in its main features, satisfactory and successful, and feeling that

his views on the financial question are not of the least importance, we are glad to endorse his candidacy and to pledge our earnest efforts to secure his reelection." Are the intelligent voters of this metropolis more gullible than those of Indianapolis or Chattanooga?

The question as to dismissals from the classified civil service without cause has worked out in the right way. The courts have very properly held that no rule can deprive an official of his legal right to remove a subordinate. It would be ruinous to discipline if any subordinate might at any time run to a court to make complaint that he was not being treated as he thought he ought to be. At the same time it is essential to the establishment of the merit system that the subordinate shall in some way be assured protection from the danger of removal without cause. This desirable result is accomplished by the decision of the Administration that each member of the cabinet shall issue regulations requiring that removals shall be made only for just cause and upon written charges, which the accused shall be allowed to answer. These regulations have not the legal force of law, but they will have all the moral power of the most vigorous statute if the head of each department requires them to be observed. Secretary Gage, for example, can make it clear at once that any internal-revenue collector who removes subordinates without cause will be removed himself, and there will never be another case of the same sort. Public opinion will render it impossible for a collector, postmaster, or other superior to make improper removals without an exposure which will involve the carrying of the offender's case to Washington, and each member of the cabinet is now going on record in a way which commits him to taking the proper action against the offender.

The one salient fact about the Union Pacific business is that the reorganization committee undertake now to pay \$8,000,000 more than they had agreed to, in order to get possession of the road. In other words, instead of a compromise, by which a part of the Government's legal claim was to be sacrificed, the whole Government lien is to be paid off. This is to be done to avoid delays, the committee say, and to prevent the whole subject from being again made a football of by Congress. But we think they ought to explain more clearly how they suddenly find themselves able to pay \$8,000,000 more than the sum they had fixed upon as the utmost limit. Is it improving business that has made the road more valuable? But should not shrewd men have foreseen that business would improve? We are aware that the Union Pacific Government directors and the of-

ficials of two administrations had advised accepting the syndicate's offer as the best obtainable; but it now appears that it was not the best obtainable by \$8,000,000. This, we say, ought to be explained. Such transactions unexplained do more to promote Bryanism and Socialism than all the books and speeches together.

The lynching of five men at once by a mob in Indiana, a few weeks ago, was so extraordinary a performance for a long-settled State that any fresh light which may be cast upon it is welcome. The *Independent* publishes a valuable article from the Rev. Dr. D. W. Fisher, President of Hanover College, who has lived for nearly twenty years in an adjoining county and within about forty miles of the recent terrible slaughter. The region is in a somewhat stagnant condition, without being specially backward in what is commonly called civilization, while the population consists of the descendants of desirable settlers from the East and of "poor whites" who migrated thither from Kentucky, Virginia, and North Carolina. The people had been long terrorized by a gang of thieves and outlaws, who had been guilty, not only of robbery of all grades, but also of shocking brutality, one of their more recent barbarities having been the roasting of an old couple on a hot stove, to make them reveal the whereabouts of their money. There was a well-grounded conviction that any one who appeared in court to testify against one of this gang, did so at the peril of property or of life, and the result was that people had lost confidence in the courts as a means of relief. At the same time they remembered that on the line of one of the railways running through this locality, and not very far from it, a similar gang had been lynched years ago, and that the community had since been free from such a combination of criminals.

There seems no reason to expect that any punishment will ever be inflicted upon those responsible for this wholesale lynching. Every leading newspaper of Indiana has spoken out boldly in denunciation of the outrage, and a very large minority of the people, including not a few in the region of the crime, are of the same mind, in Dr. Fisher's opinion, while the Governor is doing all in his power to secure the arrest and punishment of the perpetrators. "But," he adds, "if a vote were polled on the basis of universal suffrage, my observation leads me to think that the majority would either be silent, or without reflection say to the mob, 'Well done.'" He is also of the opinion that the same would be true in a large part of the United States under similar circumstances. It is, therefore, highly im-

probable that a grand jury can be empanelled that will bring in an indictment of the lynchers, or that, if an indictment is found, conviction is possible.

The big-navy mania is again afflicting many great minds. Emperor William wants the Reichstag to vote him a fleet at least as large as that of France; he really ought to have one as large as those of France and Russia combined. But by the time he had it built, they would have doubled theirs. Meanwhile, England's announced policy is to have a navy equal to any two that could be brought against it. So there would be more building of ships necessary all round. It is this perception of the growing of the problem on your hands while you are solving it that stays even the impetuosity of Mr. Roosevelt. He wants a big navy, but when pressed as to figures takes refuge in vagueness. Should we have a navy as large as England's? "Well, I would not say that." As large as that of France or Russia? "No, I would not even say that at present." No such modesty, however, deters the naval contractor, Mr. Cramp, who recently expressed his ideas in the *North American*. He would have the American navy equal to any afloat, and the more contracts that are offered his firm, the higher will his patriotism rise.

Mr. George M. Pullman, whose sudden death was announced last week, was something more than a "captain of industry." In the latter capacity he had no superior in this country. The business enterprise that is associated with his name and is due to his initiative, is one of the largest that have ever been organized under a single head, and one of the most useful. He revolutionized the methods of railway travel, not because he was an inventor merely, but because he was a man of wide mental reach. The town of Pullman was founded by him, not as a benevolent undertaking, but as a business scheme purely. Mr. Pullman's idea was that by providing superior houses and accommodations for wage-workers, at the price usually paid for an inferior sort, he could command a superior class of workmen, and probably exert an educating and uplifting influence at the same time. The place was to be first of all a paying one, for if it were not such it could not last. Its success required that control of the buildings should reside in the company, since otherwise the sanitary and other regulations for sober and wholesome ways could not be maintained. These were considered by many persons as restrictions on liberty. All such were free to live outside the town. While this notable experiment was proceeding, the Debs strike took place. It did not grow out of the previous re-

duction of wages, or as a consequence of the hard times. It came a year later, when some outside person or committee demanded a restoration of the old rates before any restoration of business had taken place. Mr. Pullman said that the company was even then building cars at a loss, and that the demand for a restoration of wages would necessitate a still greater loss, and if granted would soon end in closing the works. Mr. Debs, an outsider, then took the matter in charge, and ordered a strike in the Pullman works, and afterwards a series of strikes on all Western railways that hauled Pullman cars. The results are too recent to need recapitulation. One of the incidents was a demand by Debs and other outside persons that Mr. Pullman should submit to arbitration the question whether he could afford to pay the increased wages, which he promptly declined to do, saying it was useless to submit the question to arbitration, unless he intended to abide by an adverse award (if it should be given), which was financially impossible. In this he was clearly in the right, and his firmness was worthy of all praise. The present prosperity of the town of Pullman and of its laboring population is due to his firmness and sagacity then.

As bearing upon the great strike of the English engineers, the editor of the *London Iron and Coal Trades Review*, Mr. J. S. Jeans, published a remarkable letter in the *London Times* arguing that Great Britain can no longer compete with the United States in the production of either pig iron or finished steel. His point was, of course, that the engineers could not afford to demand too much of a trade which was bound in any event to decline. But for readers on this side of the Atlantic the following is the notable part of his letter:

"I know a good deal of the conditions in Great Britain. I thought I had ascertained something of the conditions in the United States, as the result of several visits to that country, and of having had large and perhaps unexcelled opportunities of seeing the progress there made in manufacturing industry. But I confess I was totally unprepared for the figures which large American manufacturers have placed before me as to the cost of production at their numerous and colossal establishments. I cannot, of course, submit these figures to your readers, nor is it necessary in this connection, even if it were expedient, to refer to the details of particular firms. Those who are really concerned to know the truth can convince themselves without much difficulty of the superior economic situation enjoyed by the United States. The cost of producing Bessemer pig iron in the most favorable circumstances is now in that country 10s. to 15s. per ton less than the corresponding cost in Great Britain. The difference in the cost of producing a ton of steel is at least as much, and in the majority of cases is likely to be a good deal more. I know of cases where the labor-cost on a ton of billets and rails is 25 to 35 per cent. less than the lowest labor-cost I have ever heard of in this country, although the rate of wages paid in America is materially higher. Quite a number of iron-works in this country pay from 15s. to 17s. 6d. per ton for their coke, which in the neighborhood of Pittsburgh is delivered at works for 5s. to 6s. per ton."

In view of these facts, which the success of American firms in outbidding English manufacturers on contracts for steel rails in India and Japan amply confirms, what are we to say of the iron and steel schedules of the "fairest" and most "scientific" tariff ever framed? American pig iron is cheaper by from \$2.50 to \$3.75 a ton than English, yet the fair and scientific Dingley writes down a protection of \$4 a ton for the American article. With steel rails made in this country at from 25 to 35 per cent. less cost than in England, they had to be protected by Dingley at \$7 a ton, or their manufacture would cease. What is the real reason for duties so demonstrably needless? We may get light from the action of the glass-manufacturers. They got their needless duties out of Dingley, and then, in spite of the appeals and warnings of the *Tribune*, formed a Trust, at once advanced the price of glass five per cent., and say it will be increased another five in November. That is the only remaining reason for a whole line of Dingley duties—they are put on, not to protect the manufacturer against competitors whom he is actually beating in foreign markets, but to enable him to enter into a Trust and exact a higher price from the American consumer than the foreign consumer has to pay for the same article. This may be fair and this may be scientific, but if so, it is only because it is a fair and scientific way of cheating.

The Spanish complication is evidently entering upon another stage, though as to what it is to be, the contradictory dispatches leave us in the usual uncertainty. According to one "trustworthy" telegram, Sagasta has accepted our mediation; according to another, equally trustworthy, he has resented its very proffer, and has replied that "Spain will not admit the right of any foreign Power to interfere in any of her affairs." We must say we think the latter answer is the one most likely to have been given, however carefully the language may have been guarded. At Washington they still say that there is no reason for Spain to have taken offence at Mr. McKinley's communication, it was so "friendly." But it is not manner that counts in these things; what was the substance of Gen. Woodford's note to the Spanish Government? If it intimated our right to interfere in Cuba, in the remotest degree, it could not have been received by Spain as a friendly note. No polite phrases could obscure the fact that it was, in effect, an affront to Spanish sovereignty. Mr. McKinley may be anxious to have it appear, in case of trouble, that it was Spain, not he, that was in the wrong. That is only natural; but the account will have to be made up on the basis of what was said, not of the polite manner of saying it.

The repression of free speech in Germany goes on unsparingly. Herr Liebknecht has just been sentenced to four months' imprisonment for having said, two years ago: "Under the protection of the highest authority in the state, insults are now being hurled at Social Democracy; under the protection of the highest authority the gauntlet is thrown down before the party, a challenge to battle for life or death." He denied, on trial, having intended any insult to the Emperor, but the upright judge held that, whatever the intention of the speech, it was addressed to an audience that might misinterpret it, and therefore to jail Herr Liebknecht must go for *lèse-majesté*. That is to say, an old gentleman above seventy, representing the political party which casts more votes than any other in Germany, is sentenced for a political address which in England or France or the United States, or even in Spain or Italy, would have passed almost without notice. This is tantamount to saying that members of the German Parliament, as well as the German press and the universities, must say nothing about politics that can possibly give the Emperor displeasure. A great empire is thus condemned to the strictest silence. This cannot go on.

The impudence of the Sultan in his letter to the Powers, urging them to hurry up and accept his plans for the government of Crete, fully appears only when we remember what the plan was which the Powers had announced as their own. This was explained by Mr. Curzon in the House of Commons on July 19 last. First, the Powers had agreed to "the appointment of a European Governor" for Crete. The Sultan now notifies them that he is going to appoint a Turkish Governor. Next, said Mr. Curzon, there was to be a local gendarmerie, and the Turkish troops were to be withdrawn. Not at all, says the Sultan, the troops are to stay to keep order. The next of the "principles," which, according to Lord Salisbury's mouthpiece, had been "acquiesced in without exception by all the Powers," was the issue of a loan to meet the expenses of the new régime and the convocation of a Cretan General Assembly. The Porte agrees to the loan—the Powers may loan it as much money as they please; but the rest of their "principles" are treated with contempt. The Sultan evidently means to rule Crete according to his own fancy, and to pay no attention at all, unless forced to, to the solemn "bases" of the Powers. Residents in the island, as well as the foreign forces there, have no illusions on this point. M. Gustave Larroumet, writing to the *Figaro* from Canea, reports the universal opinion of Europeans—sailors, soldiers, and diplomats—to be that "the Turks do not mean to leave."

THE GRAVITY OF THE RESULT.

The London *Spectator* says "the [New York] election has a deep interest also for the whole civilized world," as well as the American people. "Modern civilization is essentially a city civilization, and if the democratic principle cannot solve the problem of city life, it is doomed." We believe that this very idea is, at this moment, clearly or obscurely, consciously or unconsciously, at the bottom of most of the excitement we are now witnessing in this city. People are slowly beginning to comprehend that we are playing a far deeper and more serious game than the mere election of a Mayor, even of a Mayor as powerful as that of Greater New York. We are, in fact, witnessing the first real attempt of democracy to deal with its city question, and, considering the way the world is going, this attempt is of immense interest to every country in Christendom. If we succeed, it is a great event for every country as well as ours. If we fail—if, after the case has been laid before the public in the plainest way, we return to the old régime—if a majority says that it prefers the old régime, that Croker and Platt and all the bosses are good enough for it, we do not hesitate to say that the news will be received all over the world with consternation, as a veritable catastrophe for free government. It will stimulate everywhere the growing trend towards Cæsarism. The well-governed cities of the world thus far have not been democratically governed. The question whether democracy *can* govern a city is still unsettled. We are working out the experiment for the benefit of mankind. What Longfellow said of the Union is in a measure true of the Low movement in this city at this moment:

"Humanity with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate."

The fact is, we have reached the parting of the ways. Our cities, in spite of ourselves, in spite of the secret dread of the country districts, have grown at an enormous pace. The inhabitants of every country are doing what ours are doing, pouring into the places in which population is largest and most concentrated, where most enjoyment of life is to be had, most society, most amusement, readiest employment, and easiest locomotion. The movement is as irresistible as the tides. It has modern science and invention, in every field, behind it. Through it the modern world is a new world, such as the ancients never dreamed of. The face of the country is not greatly changed since Cato's time. There may be more and better cultivation, but "the happy autumn fields" still wear the brown and draw the tears of two thousand years ago. The cities are a new feature in our landscape, as different in size, and in arrangement, from the ancient world

as can well be imagined, and their government is rendered tenfold more difficult than that of the ancient cities, in that it receives no help from religion, or superstition, or ancient tradition. We have to get these heterogeneous masses to make themselves comfortable and healthy solely by appeals to their reason. We have no gods of Rome to invoke. Our arguments have to be pure business and utilitarianism.

But, until within a very few years, we had never recognized that the cities and democracy together had come upon us in a furious torrent, for which we had not made the slightest preparation, and that if channels, and locks, and wharves were not provided for both, they would ruin us. We were first startled into consciousness of the situation by the Tweed frauds, but our alarm lasted only about two years. We relapsed into indolent indifference, and the crisis continued to gain in gravity, until at last, instead of one boss like Tweed, we found ourselves under the dominion of two, who not only governed us by turns, but had also subjugated the country as well as the city. To stop where we are would be one of the most tremendous failures of history. The gradual destruction of popular government would go on, and it would be found before long that the cities had become simply places from which bosses drew money for the destruction of public liberty. It is the growing perception of this fact that has led to the Low movement, and has caused the world to fix its eyes on us, as men who are really fighting one of the great battles of civilization, such as Charles Martel won at Tours over the Saracens.

Should Low win, it will put an end to the boss system of government in city affairs. It will put an end to the boss system of nomination, which is at present ruining American public life by the exclusion of everybody who does not satisfy one ignorant and corrupt man. It will introduce a new system of nomination, which will stimulate popular interest in politics by the large number of persons whom it calls on to take part in the choice of candidates. Though last, not least, it will open a new era in American cities, by the recognition of the fact that their affairs are business, not politics; that people's lives and health and the education of their children are to the masses the main interest of government. It will show, in short, for the first time, that a city can be well governed by universal suffrage. The importance of this to democracy can hardly be overrated. It is no wonder the world is watching anxiously for the result.

A COUNSEL OF PERFECTION.

Henry George has more than once threatened Croker with the penitentiary

if he ever gets the power to put him in it. We are not sure that his threat did not also cover Platt, for Platt's offences against the community are of precisely the same character. He gets his money in much the same way, but instead of spending it in personal indulgence, as Croker does, he allows a certain portion to be diverted to his sons' firms, so as to be ostensibly pocketed by the young men. But, whatever the words he used, George's threat feels like a breath of fresh air passing through a close room. Nothing else we have heard in this canvass sounds so like an assurance that we have a man among us whose sense of proportion and of right and wrong has not been dulled by long use, and who has managed to retain his share of the old American civic courage. The putting of Platt and Croker in jail ought to be the final cause of the present conflict. It will be well to elect Low; but the work will not be complete as long as these two tremendous criminals stalk abroad. This is the ultimate end which every man now supporting Low ought to have in view. It was the great object of such reformers as Samuel J. Tilden and Charles O'Connor in 1870. They sought, it is true, to overthrow the Tweed régime, but they never rested until they had the whole Tweed gang in custody or had put them to flight. That is the way to reform such abuses as we are contending with. The way to talk about the malefactors who have carried them on is the way Henry George talks; and the intentions he holds with regard to them are those which we should all cherish. We do not assert they are capable of execution. Doubtless it will prove only a counsel of perfection to say that both these men ought to be at hard labor in the penitentiary; but counsels of perfection, at all events, are good for the soul.

Consider what has happened. We give a cheat of one small district six years in the penitentiary. These two men have stolen every district in the State, and the city as well. They have actually appropriated the two branches of the Legislature and made them and every prominent public officer the subservient instruments of their will. Platt has actually stolen the governorship and given it to an accomplice. He has through his agents imposed a charter on the city, in the teeth of the remonstrances of every instrument of expression the city possesses, and has employed in the drafting of it a partner of his son's and a strongly suspected ex-mayor of Croker's. To accomplish all this, he has extorted in very large sums money properly belonging to widows and orphans and innocent third parties, fraudulently surrendered to him by cowardly officers of corporations. They both have done, in short, by intrigue what Louis Napoleon did in Paris in 1851 by force of arms. But there were Frenchmen who gave

the crime and the criminal their right name, and Frenchmen who refused to live under them; and the régime thus set up had to be maintained by martial law. We have sat for ten years under ours, timidly and meekly, peaceably and, at most, cynically. We have been content to use Platt even when it suited our purposes. He was thoroughly exposed in 1896, before the election, by the Committee of Thirty, but, far from being repudiated or pursued criminally, he was gladly protected, so that he might help elect McKinley and protect us against Bryan! This one incident alone, even if it had not been followed by the awful spectacle of 1897, when this one man ordered his own return to the United States Senate, by a venal and silent Legislature, with only a handful of journals outside this city protesting, ought to make us blush in the dark. Compared to this, what are McKane's crimes? What were poor Maynard's? Why, mere bagatelles.

The fact is, disguise it as we may, the patient attitude of the men of this State and city during the last ten years towards these two criminals might well, as the poet says, make "the pale young mother" fear to "boast a man is born." Anything to equal our supineness while our political system was being altered, and our government was being stolen from us by a foreign ruffian and a common American cheat, is not to be found in history. We say deliberately, and challenge contradiction, that there is no other case on record where men submitted to the modifications made in their political system over a series of years, such as have been made in ours, by these two men, without making some attempt at resistance, without some attempt to put the law in force, or, failing the law, to try the sword. It is altogether an exceptional as well as a shameful record.

We are, therefore, thankful to Henry George for reminding us that it is not politics but crime we are dealing with, and it is not the ballot so much as the jailer that we need. We hear it said that we cannot get at Croker and Platt legally because they are not in office. But what difference does this make? What does this show except that our laws are defective? When we see what they have done and are doing with impunity, we learn that a new form of crime has been started among us, which calls for fresh legislation and prompt punishment. When we found that two men could ruin our government and levy blackmail without exposing themselves to indictment, our duty was to make their conduct indictable, not to sit down and cry, or lament over the degeneracy of the age. It was not possible, of course, to get the necessary legislation passed by Platt's Legislature; but it was our duty as American citizens to get a Legislature that was not Platt's and never rest till we got it. What has become

of the Americans who fought through the civil war, and drove Tweed into the penitentiary and Connolly into exile? We hear on every side that we are prosperous, but what kind of prosperity is it which the slaves of two "bunco-steers" enjoy?

THE SPOILSMEN AND THE INDIAN AGENCIES.

Rumors are afloat, too definite in form to be ignored with safety, to the effect that a group has been organized in Congress, headed by Senator Elkins, to press upon the national Administration the dismissal of several of the army officers now detailed as acting agents in the Indian service, and substitute civilians for them. Everybody knows what this means. It is a trick to recover some of the spoils of which recent advances in civil-service reform have stripped the party in power, and thus to replenish the campaign bribery-chest.

The law on this subject is so explicit that the humblest intelligence can grasp it. Every order issued from Washington to an army officer, detaching him to an Indian agency, cites the statute by title and date as proof of the President's authority. It requires, in the plainest of plain English, that, whenever practicable, army officers shall be employed as agents. Repeated efforts have been made by spoilsmen in Congress to procure its repeal, but thus far without avail. Successive administrations have evaded it as far as they dared, however, and the temper of the present Administration is still an uncertain quantity. The Elkins contingent will first try to "work" the President and Secretary Bliss without resort to any change of law. If they fail in that, their next effort will be to insert a repeal clause in the Indian appropriation bill, either boldly, by an appeal to the worst instincts of the Western Congressmen, or by the same underhand methods as were employed in the case of the notorious section 22 in the Dingley tariff act.

The control of two agencies especially appears to be a matter of concern to the spoils gang just now. One of these is the Kiowa and Comanche agency, with headquarters at Anadarko, Oklahoma; the other is the Pine Ridge agency in South Dakota. Major F. D. Baldwin, the acting agent for the Kiowas and Comanches, has, in the face of many drawbacks, accomplished a great deal for the civilization of these Indians. He has given the progressive elements among them a fresh impulse in life. With his aid they have built houses and planted farms and laid up money; and their latest notable act was the offer of a handsome sum toward the endowment of a school for the better education of their children. But an agent with ad-

vanced ideas of this sort—one who regards the Indian as a man, and not as an automaton to be played with, or a dog to have bones thrown to him from the table of the good-natured Caucasian—must necessarily fall under the displeasure of the sordid element in both races. On nearly every reservation there are factions, and the war between them has all the exaggerated bitterness which marks the family feud wherever we find it. Among the Kiowas and Comanches there is such a division, and the reactionary faction has made an alliance with a licensed trader who has been in the habit, under former agents, of "running things" on the reservation, politically, financially, and otherwise. The paid attorneys and spokesmen for this thrifty merchant have kept Major Baldwin in trouble at Washington for the last year, and one of them has boasted that they would induce the present Administration to oust him, even though they failed with its predecessor. The programme is to substitute for him a Republican politician from Maryland who was an agent during President Harrison's term, and whose record may be summed up by saying that the best thing he ever did for his Indians was to bid them good-by.

The other army officer whose head the spoilsmen demand is Major William H. Clapp, whose work at Pine Ridge has been, though in a somewhat different field, along the same lines as Major Baldwin's at Anadarko. The Pine Ridge Indians are Sioux, and the Sioux are in some respects the most difficult of Indians to deal with. They are suspicious, stiff-necked, and very proud of the warlike traditions of their nation. These traits are sometimes so much in evidence as to overshadow those sturdy virtues which inhere in them as Northern Indians, indifferent to the rigors of a trying climate and hardened to privations and fatigue. Firmness, tact, and infinite patience are the qualities needed in an agent who has the management of such a people. Major Clapp has succeeded notably in getting on with them, and after years of service as their agent enjoys the confidence of the best men in the tribe. The prime source of the movement against him is not a faction within the reservation, but a gang of white cattlemen outside. Ever since he has had charge at Pine Ridge these fellows have given him trouble. They graze their cattle on the borders of the reservation, and the animals, of course, wander across the line and crop the pastures belonging to the Indians. In one instance, not long ago, an inspection of some eighty miles of the Northern border showed that the trespassing herds had denuded a strip varying from ten to thirty miles in width along this whole line—in other words, a tract of perhaps 1,600 square miles. This, let it be noted, was not through

the ignorance or inadvertence of the cattlemen, but with their full knowledge. It is as much a part of the business of the ordinary frontiersman to feed his stock on Indian grass as to save expense in any other way.

By his activity for the suppression of these poaching practices, Major Clapp has made himself a target for the assaults of the cattlemen. They have had him "investigated" on one contemptible charge or another; and when he once carried their aggressions into court and was on the eve of punishing them, they contrived, through the same politicians at Washington who are now proposing to administer Secretary Bliss's office for him, to have the prosecutions suddenly stopped. If Mr. Bliss allows these people to use him, he will not be able to plead ignorance as an excuse for the scandals which will smirch his administration. The official records of his own office contain all the evidence necessary to protect him from the wiles of the conspirators. If he needs outside assistance he knows where he can get it, for there are as many honest men ready to aid him in defending the Indians as there are rogues bent on robbing them. If he will scan the list of South Dakota politicians who are pressing the claims of the chief civilian candidate for Major Clapp's place, he will find that the most prominent of them are shareholders in, or attorneys for, cattle companies which would profit by the substitution of a friendly and easy-going agent for one who is hostile and fearless.

The appointment of the present Secretary of the Interior was hailed by many honest citizens everywhere as a promise of good conduct for a great department of the government. So far, Mr. Bliss has shown more interest in the political bearings of his work, at Washington and elsewhere, than in any other phase of it. The cases of the Indian agencies we have mentioned, however, present to him a clear issue of decency versus degradation, apart entirely from any political aspect; and such charity as the public may have been disposed to extend to some of his earlier shortcomings, in view of his inexperience in dealing with large public affairs, will be promptly withdrawn if, with his eyes wide open, he surrenders any more of his important trust into the hands of the spoilers.

THE BIMETALLIC FIASCO.

Lord Salisbury, being very humorous might enjoy a laugh at his own expense upon reading the reply of the Indian Government to the bimetallic proposals. It has been the contention of the bimetallics that we need a stable par of exchange between gold-using and silver-using countries, and especially between England and India. This has been Mr. Arthur Balfour's shibboleth

from the start, and Lord Salisbury has been so overmastered by it that, even in his final reply to the Wolcott commission, he repeated his hope that some other proposals might be advanced having that end in view. And now the Indian Government tells him that they have achieved their desideratum by stopping the coinage of silver, and that the bimetallic scheme, if adopted, would accomplish what? The rate of exchange would rise 100 per cent. at one bound, and trade and industry throughout the Indian empire would be convulsed. This would happen if the aims of the bimetallics were gained. The first of these aims is to make silver and gold exchange with each other at the ratio of $15\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. At the present time they exchange at the metallic ratio of say 36 to 1. The pecuniary affairs of the Indian Government and people have adjusted themselves to the present status. Whether it be a desirable one *per se* or not, society is now embedded in it and accustomed to it. The present status has come about slowly during a quarter of a century. The proposal now is to undo it suddenly by artificial means, making every rupee worth double what it is now, and compelling every debtor to pay double what he owes. The changed relations of buyers and sellers, of employers and employees, of debtors and creditors would be immense and instantaneous—that is, if the desires of the bimetallics should be realized. If they should not be realized, something else would happen; nobody knows what. They might be half realized, in which case the rise of exchange would be only 50 per cent.

What next? The Indian Government believes that the rise in value of the rupee under free coinage could not be maintained. The ratio of gold to silver must, after the first spurt, be determined by their respective costs of production. So a reverse movement would begin. Speculators would carry the rate of exchange up in the first instance and down in the second. At present the rupee sells in the market at 16d. English, which is 6 or 7d. above its bullion value. When free coinage was stopped, the rupee ceased to follow the fluctuations of silver. It was slightly affected by them at first, but, as time passed, the influence of the metal became less and less. By and by the law of supply and demand became supreme over the rupee, and since the quantity cannot be increased, its value as coin has risen above its value as bullion to the point originally aimed at by the Government, viz., 16d. In other words, the par of exchange between England and India, which Mr. Balfour and the Manchester spinners have been so long waiting for, has been actually secured. (This fact was shown clearly by Lord Farrer in the *Times* weeks ago.) This boon has been gained by stopping the free coin-

age of silver. That act cut the ligament which made the value of the rupee the same as that of the bullion contained in it. To restore the ligament, says the Indian Government, would be to drag the value of the rupee down to that of silver after the first upward spurt. It would fall back not to 16d. merely, but to 9d., and this would involve fresh taxation to the amount of many millions to meet the Government's sterling obligations. The rupee would first be shot up to two shillings and then down to 9d., to be followed by endless variations in the future, and all this by way of steadying the par of exchange.

The lecture read by the Indian financiers to the home Government is very droll, but not less amusing is the haste with which the French politicians are running to cover. They were mortally afraid that England would join in a new conference, and do or say something which would compel them to show their hand. No power could have brought France in the last resort to the silver standard or the double standard, no matter how many nations might have joined in the folly, but the present Ministry might have been upset. The present Ministry depends on the agricultural interest chiefly, which has about the same proportion of blockheads that has been observed in Germany and the United States—people who believe that silver demonetization depresses the price of wheat, people who have their own "crime of 1873" to muddle with. Hence the Ministry must go as far as possible in the direction of bimetallicism to satisfy the peasant farmers, but not far enough to overturn the standard of value and lose the gold piled up in the Bank of France. The French newspapers, having no fear of peasant farmers before their eyes, say frankly that they have escaped a great danger and they are extremely glad. Instead of feeling irritation against England for her refusal to join in another international "big talk," they are thankful to her for getting them out of a bad scrape.

The business interests of the United States are under similar obligations. The Wolcott commission represented politics only, and only a small part of that. The real silverites, the party of Bryan, had no share in it. A new international conference would have been a damper on them while it lasted. In the improbable event of reaching a bimetallic agreement they would have been out of a job entirely. Their occupation would have been gone as completely as Othello's, and in any event they would have been hushed to silence for a time. They had looked at the Wolcott commission askance from the beginning, because "there was nothing in it for them." The only party, or faction, that had any real interest in it was the small moiety of Republicans who

have been playing with silver and depreciated currencies of one kind and another for twenty or thirty years. They were pretty well weeded out in the campaign of last year, but there are some left, and President McKinley is one of them. They, too, ought to be grateful to England for letting them out of a bad scrape, since a new failure in a new international conference, coming on the eve of a new Presidential election, would have been a powerful weapon in the hands of the Bryanites.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

The death of Justin Winsor removes another of the pioneers in the remarkable work of library development of the past quarter-century. The chronology of his life is simple. He was born January 2, 1831, studied a while at Harvard with the class of 1853, but soon went to the University of Heidelberg because the Harvard of those days could not, he thought, furnish him the education which he desired. In 1868, however, Harvard gave him the degree of bachelor of arts. In the same year he was, on Mr. Jewett's death, chosen librarian of the Boston Public Library, of which he had been a trustee for one year. This office he held for ten years, and then accepted the librarianship of Harvard College, which he had held for twenty years at the time of his death. He was President for the first ten years of the American Library Association, and has been President of the American Historical Society and Secretary and Vice-President of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

As President of the American Library Association, Mr. Winsor was the official head of his profession in the United States. By his position as head of the greatest library on the continent (for at that time the Library of Congress was not so large as the Boston Public), and by the way in which he administered it, he became the best-known librarian in the country. This position was owing, however, much more to his forceful personality and great executive ability than to any special originality in library economy. He had the born organizer's eye for the choice of his subordinates, with the power of impressing himself upon them and an inexhaustible supply of energy to make the machine go. Of a conservative temperament, he was not much in favor of innovations in library methods. He carried the library on substantially on the lines of his predecessors, but he developed the efficiency of their ideas to the utmost. He took a library of (in round numbers) 150,000 volumes, with a circulation of 175,000 volumes a year and an organization which, to say the least, creaked a little; he left, after ten years, a library of 310,000 volumes, circulating 1,140,000 volumes a year, and running so smoothly that for a long time after he resigned the charge it was not perceived that there was no librarian, though his provisional successors, men eminent in their several ways, were not especially fitted for librarianship either by nature or by training. But the library, though successfully managed internally, ceased almost at once to be of any account in the library world.

Though conservative, Mr. Winsor was by no means a librarian of the old school. He

cared more for the diffusion of knowledge than for the piling up of books—less, in technical library language, for acquisition than for use. Under his management the issue of books at the Boston Public Library far outran anything that had been known before, though of late years many libraries have equalled it and some have surpassed it. It was thought by some that this great circulation was built up by methods of doubtful expediency, that many books of the feeblest character and others of the most sensational kind had been put upon the shelves to attract the lower classes of readers, who, of course, are the most numerous, so that the great number of books issued only meant so much more unprofitable reading. This is not the place to discuss whether libraries supported by public taxation have a right to refuse to get any class of literature which a large number of their clients demand, nor the other question whether the so-called "trashy" literature is not the best that many feeble minds (who certainly should be provided with some reading) can enjoy, nor the third question, whether "trash" leads its readers up to better books. However that may be, the supply of cheap fiction was largely diminished by his successors, and a certain number of books that had been objected to on moral grounds were removed from the shelves; the circulation fell off considerably.

When the City Councilmen of Boston showed how little they appreciated Mr. Winsor's services by assenting to the Mayor's remark that the first man met on the street would make as good a librarian, President Eliot profited by their blindness to secure for Harvard College a librarian who would be in sympathy with the new methods of teaching that were coming to the front in the college. Mr. Winsor had gone away twenty-five years before because he perceived the inadequacy of the old system. Of course he heartily sympathized with the new one, which necessarily made the library the centre of all study. All his arrangements were made to increase its efficiency in this line. Before assuming his new office he headed, as president, a delegation of the American Library Association who went to London to assist at the birth of the Library Association of the United Kingdom. He presided at several sessions, and much astonished the meeting by the Reedian promptness with which he suppressed superfluous talk—Englishmen in that, as in some other matters, having much more freedom than Americans.

The appointment to Harvard College Library, while it withdrew him to a considerable extent from active participation in library progress, gave him the opportunity to appear before the world in a new character. A company of gentlemen undertook, under his guidance, to write the history of Boston in a series of essays. The work, admirably planned and thoroughly done, had the usual defects of conjoint authorship, but the editorship was something very unusual. Never before in this country had such a wealth of bibliographical learning been lavished on all the details of a subject. Competent writers, after weeks of special study of their topics, found that the editor could add pages of references from his memory or his notes. It was said that the editor's footnotes were the best part of some of the essays; or, as one expressed it, the cream of the work was at the bottom.

This success led to a similar undertaking, the ten large volumes of the 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' in which there is the same ample supply of bibliographical information. The whole literature of the subject—books, manuscripts, engravings, maps, in public libraries or in private hands—was drawn upon, and, where desirable, the relative value of authorities was weighed either in notes or in the critical essay appended to each chapter. The work is too heavy in two senses to be popular, but it will long be the most consulted by the scholar of all upon its subject. Mr. Winsor's historical works were the fruit of constant, assiduous, intense labor. He neglected no pains to make them thorough; but, as he was practical, he did not defer publication in the hope of an unattainable perfection. The list of titles of his books and pamphlets is too long to be given here.

If his death had happened ten years ago, he would have been equally missed by historians and librarians, but, as was natural, in proportion as his historical activity increased, his interest in general library affairs diminished, and, though his historical labors may not have lessened his care for his own library, they left him little time to attend to what was going on outside. But this present year, at the unanimous desire of the leaders in the Association, he consented to be their president for the second International Library Congress in London, where he displayed an interest and a strength which made his sudden decease a double shock to his companions.

No doubt he will be longer and better known as a bibliographer and historian than as a librarian, for the reputation of a librarian is almost as fleeting as the more widely extended fame of an actor or a singer. Unless he leaves behind him a building, like Panizzi's British Museum Reading-Room, he must rely for his chance of remembrance upon some unusual accomplishment, as Magliabecchi's knowledge of languages, or upon eminence in some other pursuit than librarianship.

THE FRICTION IN THE PITTSBURGH COAL FIELD.

PITTSBURGH, October 20, 1897.

In this district there are about 150 mines, with a capacity of about 30,000,000 tons of coal per annum, and about 25,000 miners, while there is demand for only about 15,000,000 tons of coal and about 12,000 miners. The large profits formerly obtained in the coal industry led to the rapid increase of production, often through the schemes of the speculative promoter. Many farmers and others have been willing to lease their underlying coal for a certain sum per ton, to be paid as royalty as the coal is mined. It has therefore been easy for the operator with little capital to force his way into the market, and the facilities for borrowing money have enabled him to remain in competition with capital directly invested. The increase in the number of miners is largely due to the high tide of immigration of the preceding decade.

In the fierce competition the selling price of coal has been so reduced that it is difficult for an operator to obtain the revenue barely necessary to keep his mine in operation. He is continually struggling in the markets for business and besieging the railroads for lower freight rates. Bitter has

become the hatred between operator and operator, and direful has been the effect upon the miners' wage. Every subterfuge has been used to obtain an advantage in the markets, and rebate or other stealthy device of one railway is met by stealthy device of another until neither operator nor railway knows what rate of freight is accorded other operators by other railways.

The wage for mining has been reduced to the point of bare subsistence, and through trickery and oppression many operators have still further ground the miners down. Exorbitant rents are exacted for houses which the operators own; exorbitant prices are exacted for goods obtained under compulsion in company stores, and more miners than are needed are employed that there may be increased sales at the stores. False scales and dishonest screens credit the miner with but three-fourths or one-half of the coal which he has dug. When the miners are thus robbed, the expense for digging is a matter of vague estimate; the selling price of coal falls below what would be the cost of production if the price for digging were an actual price.

The prevalence of these practices was proved by sworn testimony at an investigation of the committee of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, held in Pittsburgh in the spring of this year, and the tenacity of their root is marked by the rancor with which rival operators have persecuted the company which long ago abolished its stores, and affords abundant facility for any one to ascertain that it pays for every pound of coal that is dug, as weighed by accurate scales and measured by honest screens.

The majority of the miners are now Frenchmen, Italians, Poles, Hungarians, and others of the Slavic races, and in some of the mines negroes are employed in large numbers. The various characteristics of this mixture of races, the inherited superstitions which are deepened by the darkness and solitude in which the miners work, have made their government difficult for the operators, and the workings of the miners' unions and their officers have disclosed the lack of balance necessarily coming from a constituency of such diverse elements, so little guided by reason. Agitators who play upon the passions and the prejudices of the miners are chosen to the official positions, and then, when facts compel less radical counsel, are overthrown, often after the suspicion (which frequently is well-founded) that they have played into the hands of operators for a pecuniary consideration. The miners, when at work, are loath to part with the pittance for dues to the union, from which they then apparently derive no benefit, and when idle have not even the pittance. The officers of the unions, if not supported by the miners, must derive their support from other sources.

Operators who use machines that do part of the work of mining, pay for digging coal at certain percentages of the price paid for pick mining, and these percentages have been so low that at a comparatively high price for pick mining the cost of producing machine-mined coal is much less than the cost of producing pick-mined coal. The operators who adhere to the use of picks are, therefore, compelled to pay a low mining price, that the advantage obtained by the use of machines may not be greater than is warranted by the increased productiveness

and intrinsic advantage of the machines. It is, therefore, to the interest of the machine operators to aid in maintaining as high a rate for pick mining as practicable, and operators who rob their miners through company stores, false weights, and dishonest screens have greater gain through such thefts at a high than at a low mining price. Therefore, these operators work in collusion with the officers of the miners' unions that they may retain the low percentages, which increase the advantage that would naturally be obtained by the use of machines; the company that has no stores, pays at honest weights, and does not use machines, being the especial object of their attack.

The capacity for overproduction has made ferocious the conflicts between these warring elements. The result is chaos in the industry. For years the profit of the operator has been naught, and in many cases abject poverty the reward of the miner. Even at a low mining price he often has but two or three days of work a week and is allowed to load but one or two pit wagons a day. During the winter of 1896-'7, the destitution of the miners became so great that public charity and the aid of the county homes for the poor were solicited in their behalf. The committee of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, after a personal investigation, strongly corroborated the reports of their destitution, but said that at the mines where there were no company stores, where miners were paid by accurate scales and honest screens, their condition was as prosperous and the miners as contented as could be expected under the general depression of the industry. Notwithstanding these facts, which the miners' leaders themselves have admitted time and again, these same miners' leaders, at the instigation of rival operators, send hordes of strikers and bands of music to the mines where it is conceded that honest practices prevail, to induce the miners to strike, insisting that their employers pay on an honest basis the same price per ton for digging coal as other operators whom they know to cheat their men, and from whom they have time and again received money for one purpose and another. And this in spite of a growing sentiment which the Pittsburgh *Dispatch* voices in the editorial statement that "Certainly it would be more appropriate to fight against the operators who try to continue the old abuses than to keep it up against one who refuses to do anything of the sort."

It is undoubtedly the case that general relief will come only when a number of the mines are forced out of business and a number of the miners seek employment at other kinds of work. It is impossible for 150 mines to thrive when seventy-five are sufficient, and for 25,000 miners to make a living when there is work but for 12,000. In the past year or two several of the companies have failed, insolvency in cases revealing the grossest mismanagement and misappropriation of funds. It may be that a beneficent result could be hastened by the combination of a limited number of the mines which, by location and management, are best adapted to supply the markets. Such a combination, to market the largest quantities of coal, and thereby do business upon the large scale which in these times alone is profitable, would be obliged to make the selling price of coal so low as to hold its own in

competitive markets with the mines of other districts, and so low as to drive other mines in the same district out of the market. To this end it would have to be sufficiently powerful to secure the lowest rates of freight from the different railways; it would be obliged to adhere to the strictest economy in all the details of operation, to accord honest treatment to its miners, and, that they might make living wages even at a low mining price, to give them steady employment during the entire year.

If there were similar combinations of mines in different districts, instead of the clashing of individual operators which works not only to their individual injury, but also to the injury of the district as a whole, it would be possible to adjust competitive markets between different districts in a manner that would afford the greatest satisfaction to the consumer, the operator, the miner, and the railway. The most valuable fuel known to man, the supply of which is nowhere inexhaustible, would be conserved instead of being squandered.

M. A. C.

TOKENS OF WOE AND THE PELASGI.

MILFORD SURREY, ENGLAND,
October 8, 1897.

The letter of Prof. Sterrett in *Nation* No. 1682, on the researches of Mr. Ridgeway into Mycenaean art, reminds me that, more than ten years ago, I submitted to the American Archaeological Institute a paper on the so-called Pelasgic remains, in which I took substantially the same position as that now taken by Mr. Ridgeway, that the early civilization of Greece and Italy was due to the Pelasgi, and, following the lines of the monuments recognized by the ancients as "Pelasgic," I attempted to show the line of their migrations. The paper was, by the kindness of Prof. Norton, put in type, but, I suppose, owing to the reluctance of the committee to be in any way identified with the theory that the Pelasgi were a reality, as a once existing distinct stock, and that anything could be made known concerning them, it was never published. I believe I was considered by the scholars who then directed the line of study of the Institute, as a wild theorist who had got the *tic* of the Pelasgi and must be shunned.

In the researches which led me to the conclusions expressed in that paper I had, under competent advice, avoided collating my results before their completion with the literary evidence on the same subject, so that, if a real harmony existed, the demonstration would be more complete. Prof. Max Müller, to whom I owed that advice, may perhaps remember the incident. The conclusions to which my study had led me were in brief, that the Pelasgi at a very early date had moved round the Adriatic, from the lower Balkans, into Italy by the upper road, and, the valley of the Po being then probably still under water, they made their first settlement south of the Apennines in Tuscany, and especially in that volcanic and fertile district from the Arno down to the Abruzzi, with their principal centre in Umbria and the Sabines. The capital, if such a thing existed, was Alatri, and near by, at Cesi, I later discovered what I consider their first recognizable stronghold and the first advance from cave-dwelling as a fortifiable civic position; that site showing both cave-residence and the earliest form of Pelasgic wall-building. This district, embracing the

country as far as Monte Cassino, the Volscian country (Segni, Norba, etc.) as far as Monte Circeo (the Campagna di Roma not being, in all probability, then inhabitable), with the region of the upper Abruzzi, with Alatri, Arpino, Spoleto, Cesi, Atina, Sora, extending as far north as the valley of the Arno (Cortona being one of the latest surviving centres), was Pelasgic; and the enormous vigor of the civilization of that region may be conceived from the fact that, in the province of Rome alone, there are the remains of about 400 cities fortified in the Pelasgic manner, of which by far the greatest number are of the so-called first, or rude, style of "Cyclopean." There was the first great Pelasgian empire, and from there they extended their power down through the fertile regions of what is now the Terra di Lavoro, through the Basilicata, Apulia, Calabria, and over into Sicily, where one of the most splendid remaining ruins exists at Cefalù (Cephaloedium). The remains in the latter regions are marked as late by the style, which is the third, or more complete and finished in execution, showing advanced art and wealth as well as leisure.

That the migration between Italy and Greece was from Italy is indicated by the fact that ruins similar to those in Italy appear on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, where the shores are visible one from the other, and do not appear north of there on the Albanian side, as would have been the case if the migration had been from the Peloponnesus northward, and by the style of those which occur (Apollonia, Dodona, etc.)—none being of the rudest type. Moreover, they follow the coast down to the Peloponnesus, where was established another powerful seat marked by Mycenæ and its port Tiryns, Argos (later), Nauplia, and the few other remains in the peninsula. Thence the current moves eastward by two streams, the most important being sea-borne by the islands Cerigotto, Cerigo, to Crete and thence by Santorin and other islands of the Ægean to Asia Minor; the other going by the Thessalian shores to meet the first on the shores of the Black Sea.

The enormous importance of the remains which still existed when I first went to Crete, and which have since been almost entirely destroyed by the modern Cretans for building material, indicate that, after the seat of power in central Italy, the most important was Crete, and here the Pelasgic race and religion met those of Asia Minor, and in the ruins of Gnosus, which I was the first to record, in a report to the American Institute about 1882-4 (having no record by me, I cannot state the year precisely), I discovered the Cretan script which Mr. Evans has since investigated in so thorough and interesting a manner. Among these "mason-marks" were some which were recognized by the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris as proto-Assyrian, indicating the affinity of the civilization known as that of "Minos" to the early Asiatic. The excavation of the ruin at Gnosus which gave so promising an indication of discovery, had been arranged with the proprietor of the land, but was secretly opposed by the Governor-General on account of the omission, as I afterward learned, of the customary backsheesh, and one has still to confirm or disprove my then published conjecture that it was the remains of what had given rise to the tradition of the Labyrinth.

The Pelasgi disappeared from Italy owing, I conceive, rather to the absorption in the other races, the Siculi, the Umbri, and the establishment of a composite race, which we now speak of as the Italic, and which, later still, was invaded, and partially conquered, by the Etruscans on the north and the Greeks on the south of a line running from the vicinity of Civita Vecchia across the peninsula to that of Ancona; the Greek sphere being centred in the valley of the Tiber, the Etruscan in that of the Arno. All these conclusions I have since more or less established by the collation of the monumental evidence with the traditions, as I hope ere long to have the leisure to show. The identity of the Italic with the Peloponnesiac civilization may be seen by a careful comparison of the remains of Arpino (Latin Arpinum) with those of the older parts of Mycenæ, the same kind of stone being used in precisely the same way, viz., splitting, hammering, and trituration to finish (Hesiod tells us that Mycenæ was built with the stone-hammer and the plumb-line); for in neither case is there the least evidence of the possession of any appliances for the cutting of the stone, and all through the extent of the Italian ruins there is no chisel-work to be found until we reach the constructions traditionally assigned to the Etruscans, and which appear in both the Latin and Etruscan country, having evidently been imported by the great immigrations subsequent to the Trojan war.

Now as to the antiquity of these primitive constructions, there is some curious evidence in the ruins of Mycenæ. These are of two widely separated epochs, the earliest being visible most demonstrably in the older royal tomb and in the conglomerate wall, especially in the postern gate. If my readers will examine the interior of the tomb, they will find that the conglomerate, which is the stone of construction, shows here and there nodules or fragments of a hard stone, either the opaque carnelian of the Etruscan (?) gems, or corundum, the protruding surface of which is polished like a precious stone, evidently by the attrition of the finishing process of preparing the stone for its place. The comparison of the surrounding material shows an erosion of the limestone component of the conglomerate to a depth of about a line. This is the effect of weather-wear, and as the interior of the tomb has always been protected from the elements in a great measure, the time required to produce this erosion must be reckoned by tens of centuries. If this seems an extravagant estimate, I beg the student to examine the traces left, at the doorway, of a later restoration of the façade. There are the bases of two pilasters of a different material, the limestone of the adjacent hills. This was never employed in the early construction, because the workers had no means either of quarrying or cutting it. They could split the conglomerate into blocks of any size with the stone-hammer by a method still in use in the region about Arpino, where the same stone is found, with tolerable accuracy, while the limestone could be brought into determinate shapes only by methods which had not then been known by them, but which were brought into use, according to tradition, in the seventh century B. C., by the use of the "stone-saw." Where in the earlier work at Mycenæ, as throughout the walls of the Italian cities, Arpino, Alatri, Circeo, Segni, etc.,

etc., the limestone is used, it is always polygonal and hammered, as is also the case in the remains of Crete, where I do not remember ever having found the conglomerate; certainly the stone-saw never occurs.

Now the restorations in the great tomb at Mycenæ are worked by the stone-saw, as are the important parts of the second tomb, known as "Madame Schliemann's tomb," and the lion relief over the great gate of the city, a later addition to the gate. There is one detail in the pilasters of the former tomb to which I must call particular attention as of the highest technical and chronological importance. This is the way in which the mouldings of the pilasters are cut—by a vertical and a horizontal cut of the stone-saw, at the approximate intersection of which there is left a small portion of stone which has been broken out, and the fracture still protrudes (or did when I last saw it), showing that even then there was no means of chiselling out this breakage to finish the work. The contrast may easily be seen and estimated in the doorway itself, the lintels being of the old split and triturated conglomerate, while the later work shows the saw and the fracture of the limestone, which fracture seems quite fresh. The relative antiquity of the two kinds of work may be estimated by the evidence of the action of the elements, which in the interior has been very great and not less outside, though I could not find the nodules of *pietra dura* on the lintels to gauge it by, while the weather seems to have had no effect on the new work, as the crystallization of the limestone is not effaced and the lines made by the stone-saw are visible. Contemporaneously with the stone-saw the tube-drill seems to have come in, and their action is so nearly identical that we can have no great difficulty in admitting that they were introduced (probably from Egypt) about the same time, a time indicated by the lion relief, which shows not only the stone-saw and the tube-drill, but the trituration in the removal of the material between the drill-holes. The face of one of the lintels shows a late cutting of the stone-saw apparently for the free movement of the gate. The little gate above, a postern, is of the old work, and the capstone is held on the lintels by a tenon and mortice, rudely broken out. The lion relief is assigned by all the best archaeological authorities to about the seventh or eighth century, which coincides approximately with the epoch assigned by Greek tradition for the introduction of the stone-saw. Wherever, therefore, we find the trace of that implement, we may reasonably conclude that the work is not earlier than the eighth century, to which we must assign the remains of the palace of Tiryns and the second great tomb at Mycenæ, while any cut stone must be given a still later date, for it is clear by these eighth-century remains that the art of cutting stone and the possession of the stone-chisel antedate the latest work now visible at Mycenæ. In corroboration of this conclusion is the result of all the researches I have been able to make among the Greek cities, viz., that on no ruins of an earlier date than the seventh century (*circa*) has the chisel been employed. In Italy it does not appear until the later changes, and then always on the comparatively soft tufa, which is easily cut by a bronze tool, nor in examining the stones or searching the hills from which the stone

was taken can any indication of quarrying be found, except in the same tufa, which occurs in Crete, where the method of quarrying is clear.

The examination of the interior of the great tomb at Mycenæ will satisfy any student that the time required for the erosion of the stone on the inner surfaces of the masonry, of which no indication is shown in the eighth-century work outside, must be estimated at very many centuries, which must have intervened between the early and the late Mycenæ—a measure which we can indicate only in geologic terms. And as to the source of this art, which, for want of any determination, we call by the appellation of "Mycenæan," I believe we must refer it to Crete, where, indeed, Greek tradition places the origin of Greek civilization; but I have no doubt that it was Pelasgic, and dates from a time when the Pelasgi not only were a distinctly recognized race, but were the rulers of the Ægean and all the lands on it. Mr. Ridgeway has anticipated me in the collation of the authorities on the existence of the Pelasgi as a race, which I had intended to add to the study of the monuments, and I am glad to divide with him the obloquy of recognizing the Pelasgi.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of October 14 the reviewer of my 'Dictionary of American Authors,' while very properly calling attention to several annoying errors and misprints in my pages, makes two or three statements against which I feel inclined to urge a mild protest.

(1.) He says that the name of Sydney Fisher is wrongly entered, and that the correct spelling is Sidney. Now he may be right, but I should like to state in my defence that I followed the spelling of the name as given on the title-page of Mr. Fisher's 'Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth,' the spelling on Mr. Fisher's letter-head, and also that of Mr. Fisher's own signature appended to his letter addressed to me.

(2.) That the date of Joel Barlow's birth should be 1755, not 1754. In this matter I followed Barlow's latest biographer, Charles Burr Todd, not to mention other authorities.

(3.) That the date of death of James Hammond Trumbull is not given. That eminent writer died in August, 1897, and my book had already been printed and bound some three weeks when Mr. Trumbull's death occurred.

(4.) That dates of death are often omitted. This is quite true, I presume, in a number of instances. I can only say that I made all reasonable effort in correspondence, the searching of necrology lists, college class memorials, etc., to ascertain such facts, and that whenever a date of that kind was obtained that appeared to be trustworthy, it was inserted. In several instances, although I felt almost convinced that the particular writer was not living, I was obliged to leave the matter unsettled because diligent inquiry failed to reveal the date of his demise. I need hardly add that I shall be very glad to be informed of errors and

omissions readers may find in my Dictionary, in order to rectify them so far as possible in another edition.—Very truly yours,

OSCAR FAY ADAMS.

THE HERMITAGE, BOSTON, October 18, 1897.

[We will, not by way of extenuation in the matter of the younger Fisher, offer the name of Mr. Sidney George Fisher, author of 'The Trial of the Constitution' (1862), as worthy of insertion in a new edition.—ED. NATION.]

A PROPHET OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in a recent number of *Harper's Weekly*, descriptive of the new and astonishing movement on foot at the University of California, whereby its buildings and grounds are to be made to surpass anything thus far attempted, in beauty and convenience, reminds one of a commencement address delivered at Berkeley in June, 1881, by the late Bishop E. O. Haven. In his remarks he distinctly alluded to a future for the State and its University which has been largely realized for the former and seems about to be for the latter. He had been largely instrumental in laying the foundation for Michigan's future, and had done scarcely less for two other large universities, and therefore saw with a trained eye the possibilities that lay in the then budding university. His public remarks, however, were less definite than his private conversations. In them he expressed a belief that the time was not far distant when the University of California might easily outstrip any other of like kind. Indeed, had it not been for his age, this conviction would probably have led him to listen to proposals made him at one time to undertake its upbuilding. His words in the address mentioned were:

"I hope for a noble development of all the educational institutions of our Pacific Coast. And among them all, none has a grander opportunity than this University of California. Here on this beautiful bay, with the great arms of the State on the right and on the left, and the continent behind it, and already strongly founded, I trust it will be conspicuous among its associates, the leader of leaders, the mother of well-trained intellects and hearts, and worthy of honorable mention among the renowned universities of the leading nations of the world."

MORE DISENCHANTMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Enchanted Mesa was "disenchanted" so soon as the nearest telegraph office was reached, and for so long as Mr. Hodge forbore to climb. But since the fateful 3d of September, several weeks of criticism have been endured in silence before Prof. William Libbey gives to the Associated Press his carefully prepared defence. This foregoing of haste cannot but be reckoned a distinct gain in scientific methods.

Yet Prof. Libbey's defence does not defend. It is concerned entirely with what he understands that Mr. Hodge's friends have said, and with the perseverance of Prof. Libbey as an authority on New Mexican ethnology. It tells us what Pueblo pottery, cairns, and habitation are, and what they indicate, and it increases very seriously the

responsibilities of the author. Says Prof. Libbey:

"I picked up some fragments which resembled ancient pottery, but could not convince myself that they were. I took them to Mr. Pearce [the reporter who went up with him], and he agreed with me that they were not pottery."

I do not care to characterize this astounding admission, except by saying that not for a second can Pueblo pottery, no matter how old, be mistaken for anything but pottery—by any one, that is, who has learned the rudiments of New Mexican ethnology.

In the *Princeton Press* (August 21) and elsewhere, Prof. Libbey decided that the now famous—and always unmistakable—"cairn" was "the result of erosion." Now that Mr. Vroman's eloquent photographs are in evidence, Prof. Libbey admits its human origin, but asserts confidently that this monument "is possibly the best proof of a mere visit. Primitive peoples are not given to building cairns in their back yards." If Prof. Libbey shall ever become familiar with the Pueblo towns—even with Acoma, where his brief visit seems to have been in vain—he will find many of these cairns. Some are built for adult Indian reasons; some because Indians have children, even as they had in the days of Katzimo. To explore really the one labyrinthine rock of Acoma requires many times more days than Prof. Libbey has given to all the 300 miles square of New Mexico.

Prof. Libbey admits now that he "found fragments of pottery at various points around the base of the mesa, but did not deem the fact important enough to mention." The talus against the cliff, at the point which has received the largest drainage from above, is 224 feet high; but it seems never to have occurred to Prof. Libbey—even after he had found the summit so eroded and so stripped that most of its trees are dead or dying—that this talus came from somewhere. I have axe-heads, arrow-heads, and potsherds (among the latter some of far-reaching significance) which I prised out of that talus a dozen years ago, and artifacts are abundant there still. The only theory on which the matter could be deemed too insignificant to mention would be that the talus had washed up from the plain—just as his cairn of erosion must have been eroded up!

The insinuation that the Indians (who came up after Mr. Hodge) "salted the claim," is not to be discussed; and I can only hope that Prof. Libbey already regrets having made it. Any knowledge either of Indians or of Mr. Hodge's work places this unfortunate hint where it belongs in science, without reference to its ethics.

His life-line was still in place, and Prof. Libbey desires us to remember that he could have scaled the cliff again in the morning if he had deemed it worth while. It is remembered.

Six weeks after Prof. Libbey, Mr. Hodge climbed the mesa modestly and unheralded, in 135 minutes, with tooth and toenail and a 36-foot ladder—as against four days and a life-saving outfit and boatswain's chair. Five minutes after reaching the top, he found pottery, and before leaving found more pottery, axe-heads, and other artifacts—not to mention a certain monument. He went up over the prehistoric trail, at several points of which the erosion-rounded steps carved in the living rock are so plain that they can be positively identified in a good photograph.

It was, perhaps, prophetic that Prof. Libbey looked at this gorge up which his Nemesis was to come, and photographed it, and published the half-tone with his facetious article in *Harper's Weekly*.

Princeton, if I mistake not, was the home office from which the official organ of the Archaeologic Institute of America devoted some years to the researches of Bandelier in the Southwest. This coincidence gives a poignant humor to sheep before the Conquest, Acoma as the home of Montezuma, and twosome like (if perhaps minor) novelties in Prof. Libbey's science; while doubtless nothing could add to the point of material things looked at but not seen.

After all this, and much more, in kind, than your patience may be taxed with, Prof. Libbey concludes: "The main question is, Was the mesa ever inhabited? I think I am warranted in answering in the negative." The "main question" has been settled by Mr. Hodge. CHARLES F. LUMMIS.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

Notes.

Further announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'The Life and Letters of Thomas Kilby Smith, Brevet Major-General U. S. V.,' by his son, Walter George Smith; 'A Note-Book in Northern Spain,' by Archer M. Huntington; 'Islands of the Southern Seas,' by Michael Myers Shoemaker; the second volume of Dr. Peters's 'Nippur'; 'On Blue Water'—from Genoa to Buenos Aires—by Edmondo De Amicis; 'Reminiscences of an Old Westchester Homestead,' by Charles Pryer; 'The Habitant, and Other French Canadian Poems,' by William Henry Drummond; 'Anarchism: A Criticism and a History,' by E. V. Zenker; 'Mathematical Psychology,' by Mrs. George Boole; and the sixtieth edition of Burke's 'Peerage.'

'Garden-Making,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell, will be issued during the present season by Macmillan Co.

'Thoughts and Theories of Life and Education,' by Bishop Spalding of Peoria, is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Henry Holt & Co. have added to their list of Taine's works his 'Journeys through France: Being Impressions of the Provinces,' with a few not remarkable illustrations. Our readers have already been acquainted with the social and political interest of this diary.

Browning's 'Ring and the Book' has been freshly issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co., edited with an introduction and a fair show of footnotes by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, editor of *Poet-Lore*, a Browning organ. An etched portrait of the poet serves as frontispiece.

From Edward Arnold we receive a popular edition of Slatin Pasha's 'Fire and Sword in the Sudan,' of which the sequel is now being enacted in the British approach to Khartum. The illustrations are retained.

A new mode of advertising the already well known appears in a series of ten volumes of 'John L. Stoddard's Lectures' publicly delivered with the aid of the lantern for a period of eighteen years (Belford, Middlebrook & Co.). The first volume, covering Norway, Switzerland, Athens, and Venice, bears out the author's assertion that the illustrations, of a high quality like the lantern slides, outnumber the latter, and is

to be recommended as a picture-book. The text is of the familiar type of superficial cramming, cheap rhetoric, and flat humor too often associated with one of the most important agencies for popularizing sound and useful knowledge.

In an attractive volume, published by Macmillan Co., Mr. A. G. Bradley has collected a number of 'Sketches from Old Virginia' contributed to various English magazines in past years. It is perhaps inevitable that a book made after this fashion should contain more or less repetition. The author's ideas on the subject of Virginian scenery, negro characteristics, quail shooting, and the abominable roads that disgrace the Old Dominion, recur in several chapters; and the peculiarities of the Colonel in one sketch are suspiciously like those of the Judge in a second or the Doctor in a third. Then, again, the critical reader may properly object to the use of *latitude* for *altitude* or of *partook* in for *partook* of as being unlooked-for results of Mr. Bradley's early training on the classic banks of the Kennet. But these are small matters and take but little from the real value of the book as a picture of Virginian life during the period after the war, and before that recrudescence of fashionable life at the Springs which has made that section of the country familiar to so many New Yorkers in recent years. Such travellers will duly appreciate Mr. Bradley's word-pictures of mountain scenery—"the air full of the noise of falling waters, the scent of cedars and hemlocks, and the steady moan of mountain winds sweeping softly over many miles of leaves"; the sportsman will enjoy his account of the first introduction of fly-fishing to the notice of the rude mountaineers of the Blue Ridge; and the general reader will find that sort of fascination that belongs to all genuine descriptions of places and people.

The widow of the late Sir John Hawley Glover has prepared a memoir of her husband, which will shortly be published by Smith, Elder & Co., London. Its main interest for readers on this side of the water lies in the fact that Sir John Glover was Governor of Newfoundland and of the West Indian Colony of the Leeward Islands, successively; but the subject of the memoir achieved distinction mainly by his success in carrying out the Volta expedition against Ashantee, in 1873.

Dr. Emil Reich, whom British newspapers have announced as having been engaged by the Attorney-General of England to instruct the law officers upon certain points of international law, as these have been applied to questions which have arisen in the cases of arbitration that have been submitted by several of the South American republics, is not unknown in the United States. Some years ago he delivered before the University of Cincinnati a course of lectures upon "The Origin and Development of the Main Institutions of Mankind." These were afterwards published with the title, 'History of Civilization' (Cincinnati, 1887). In 1890 Dr. Reich delivered, at the University of Oxford, a course of lectures dealing mainly with Roman law. These also were published as a continuation of the series already delivered. They form part of a scheme of the author's for compiling a Comparative History of the Western Nations. He has just written a 'Handbook of Hungarian Literature,' for Jarrold & Sons, London. The master of seven languages, possessed of great

intellectual power, with any amount of work in him, Dr. Reich's friends see in him a coming man. He is a Hungarian by birth and a jurist of Vienna by profession. He is but forty years old.

Mr. Rawson Gardiner, in his 'History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate' (1651-1654), makes a clean sweep of the tradition that Admiral Tromp hoisted a broom at the masthead of his ship, in token of his intention to sweep the English off the seas. It is true that Professor Laughton of the Royal Naval College had expressed his disbelief in the story in his article upon Admiral Blake in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' but Mr. Gardiner in cold blood omits the incident from his text, and then in a footnote entirely discredits it, while in the index to the volume he cruelly characterizes it as a "fiction." Mr. Gardiner, by the way, has undertaken to edit for the Navy Records Society, London, the State papers (Dutch as well as English) relating to the "Dutch Wars" in Cromwell's time.

At the opening session of the Royal Colonial Institute, London, on the 2d of November, a paper upon "The Railway System of South Africa" will be read by Sir David Tennant, Agent General for the Cape Colony.

The London School of Economics and Political Science pursues its useful course of instruction for those wishing to qualify themselves in the art of deciphering ancient charters and other manuscripts, and as to the diplomatics of such old writings as are required to be transcribed, cited, or edited by historical students. At the same time the students are informed as to the distribution and classification of the chief collections of English historical manuscripts. During the Michaelmas term, lectures will be given upon elementary palaeography and diplomatics, chiefly of English manuscripts and records from the twelfth to the seventeenth century, by Mr. Hubert Hall, F.S.A., of the Public Record Office. In the same term there will be a demonstration of the system of palaeography by practical work by advanced students. In November Sir Edward Maunde Thompson, Principal Librarian of the British Museum, will give a lecture. American students may like to know that the School of Economics and Political Science is at 10 Adelphi Terrace, London, W. C. The director is Mr. W. S. Hewins, M.A.

What may be called the empire movement still goes on apace in England. Among various evidences of the fact is the programme for Sunday afternoon free lectures on the British Empire, for the current season. The first list issued shows that provision has been made for a lecture for each Sunday from the 3d of October to the 12th of December, at the South Place Institute, Finsbury, in the heart of the City of London. The object is to instruct the workmen in their heritage in the empire. "All seats free. No collection." The papers provided are "Our Colonial Empire," by W. Herbert Jones; "West Africa," by Miss Mary Kingsley, daughter of Henry, and niece of Charles Kingsley, and herself now famous as a traveller; "Cyprus," by Professor Patrick Geddes; "Islands of the Pacific," by a former High Commissioner of the Western Pacific, Lord Stanmore, uncle of the Governor-General of Canada. As the Hon. Arthur Gordon, Lord Stanmore was many years ago Governor of New Brunswick, before the Canadian Dominion was formed. "British New

Guinea" will be treated of by Mr. Hatton Richards, and the Australian colony of "Victoria" by Mr. Jerome Dyer. The Rev. Walter K. Firminger will describe "Zanzibar"; Mr. Basil Home Thomson, son of a former Archbishop of York, and himself an ex-Prime Minister in the Southern Seas, will talk of "Fiji," while "Malta" will be spoken of by Mr. Claude Lyon. Many of the lectures are illustrated by lantern pictures and by maps, etc., lent by the Colonial and Imperial Institutes. Much trouble is taken by the promoters to get men who really know their subjects to give lectures.

An account of the archaeological expedition to Iceland conducted by Lieut. Daniel Bruun, recently published by the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, shows some interesting results. Lieut. Bruun, accompanied by the Icelandic archaeologist, Brynjólfur Jónsson, left Reykjavik the latter part of July and first examined the ruins of a number of dwellings east of Hvítá, the existence of which was already known. The examinations in Norrland to the eastward proved that this district had been inhabited much farther inland than had before been supposed. About fifty ruined farms were found, one of them being on the lava plain to the north of Vatna Jökull. It is believed that the present desolation of these districts is due to the disappearance of the birch forests and the consequent sand-storms. The expedition returned to the capital on September 6.

Hardly anything is more interesting about our savage ancestors than the fact that they not infrequently practised trepanning. Dr. R. Munro devotes a chapter to this subject in his recent book on 'Prehistoric Problems.' The large number of skulls that have been met with exhibiting artificial openings shows that the operation must have been found to be beneficial, and so does the fact that the pieces of a skull cut out were worn as amulets. The trepanning was performed by scraping the head with a piece of flint more frequently than by cutting out the bone, and it is supposed that in most cases the object of the operation was to alleviate some mental disorder of an epileptiform character. That the operation was performed while the patient was alive is proved by the fact that healing has occurred on the cut edges of the bone, but sometimes it is apparent that the patient did not survive the operation, or perhaps died from the illness which the trepanning was intended to cure.

From the *Chronique des Arts* we learn that the great museum of the Hermitage, at St. Petersburg, is to be closed for one year, owing to the extensive restorations which are to be made upon the building. Intending travellers to Russia will do well to bear this fact in mind.

A welcome annual visitor reappears in 'Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender for 1898' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It is a pad of octavo leaves of which each contains one or more illustrations, with text pertinent to the day of the year—notice of historic events, of festivals, etc. The views are of landscape for its geologic or picturesque interest, of towns and cities, with portraits of celebrities, autographs, etc. Merian's various 'Topographiae' have been again freely drawn upon, but a large proportion of the cuts are from photographs. An index furnishes a key to all. The only ob-

jection to this calendar is that one hesitates to strip it to pieces. It is worth putting on the shelf like a book.

The department of French of Harvard University will give three performances of Racine's 'Athalie' in Sanders Theatre on the evenings of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, December 6, 8, and 10. The play has been selected as the most perfect example of the French classical tragedy of the seventeenth century, and will be given with Mendelssohn's music—the vocal part by one of the leading societies of Boston, and the orchestral part by members of the Boston Symphony Orchestra. The cast, which will include students, graduates, and instructors of Harvard University and Radcliffe College, assisted by ladies in Boston and Cambridge, will be very large.

We print in another place our tribute to the late Justin Winsor, librarian of Harvard University, but we must add here that he was a constant contributor, as reviewer or as foreign correspondent, to these columns, from which he can ill be spared. Though incessantly and indefatigably engaged, no call upon him went unhonored. Conscientious all his writing was, but his style marked the too rapid worker, and in its want of lightness testified to the irrepressible conflict between the bibliographical and the literary habit. He had planned a series of letters to this journal on occasion of the late International Congress of Librarians, but his engrossing duties and the endless hospitality of the British public no doubt prevented his intention from being carried out.

—Mr. Joel Chandler Harris's 'Aaron in the Wildwoods' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is not a sequel to 'The Story of Aaron,' but a picking-up of dropped threads. Both the full understanding and the full enjoyment of it depend upon that and other recent volumes in the same cycle, in which the author has attempted an adumbration of slavery as it was, for youthful minds. As a whole, the new volume is at once less artistic and pathetic than its predecessors, yet adds something to the picture. A passage (p. 196) which explains amateur slave-catching by the "vigor of youth seeking an outlet" and regarding it "merely in the nature of a frolic for them to ride half the night patrolling, and sit out the other half watching for Aaron [the swamp fugitive]," sheds light on one of the causes of the perpetuity of lynching. On the other hand, children will be perplexed by the revival of the old plea in extenuation for slavery that God was using its tender mercies for the civilization of the victims of the African slave trade. And, again per contra, we see here the beginning of a Southern Lincoln legend, which boldly proclaims the liberator "the greatest American of our time." Mr. Harris's art is conspicuous in his personification of the Swamp. In this he invites comparison with Kipling and the Jungle, and if his style must be pronounced inferior, his poetic feeling will stand the test, while a certain tenderness finds no parallel in the more renowned and prolific story-teller.

—Abyssinia has been so much in evidence of late that M. Vignéras's entertaining 'Une Mission Française en Abyssinie' (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.) is very timely. The embassy of which he was the secretary went early in the year to Adis Abeba, the present capital of Menelik, its chief object probably being to

arrange for the building of a railroad from Jibutli to Harar. Upon this, however, he does not touch, but confines himself to a description of the incidents of the journey, the receptions at the court, and to his general impressions of the land and the people. From the conditions prevailing in the two provinces visited, Harar and Shoa, Abyssinia has not yet emerged from a state of semi-barbarism. There are no roads, and consequently there is little commercial intercourse with the coast. Industries, in the European sense of the word, are unknown, and the medium of exchanges is a bar of salt, though the Maria Theresa dollar is used somewhat, and Menelik is endeavoring to introduce a fractional silver currency. A large part of Shoa, at least, is being turned into a desert by the wasteful destruction of its forests. Menelik has changed his capital four times since his accession in 1889 because of the exhaustion of the wood in its neighborhood, and Adis Abeba will be abandoned in its turn at no distant time. Of the Negus the author writes in almost extravagant terms, not only as "a successful general, a wise statesman, and a remarkable ruler," but as a man intelligent in matters of science and art, as well as possessing considerable mechanical skill. With other writers he dwells upon the courage and discipline of the Abyssinians and their strong national feeling, but his statement that slavery "does not exist" among them is directly contrary to the testimony of Dr. Donaldson Smith, who gives numerous instances of slaveholding and slave-raiding by Abyssinians. The illustrations consist of sixty reproductions of the author's photographs of scenes characteristic of the land and its inhabitants.

—Teachers and students of French have long desired a good pronouncing dictionary of that language. There have been, to be sure, various books that purported to represent the pronunciation of the whole or some large part of the French vocabulary; but their transcriptions were clumsy and frequently unintelligible, and the scientific attainments of their authors were not such as to command unlimited confidence. On the other hand, the excellent 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française,' by Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas, which gives a plain and trustworthy notation of every word, is large, somewhat expensive, and still unfinished. A real want is, therefore, supplied by the new 'Dictionnaire Phonétique de la Langue Française,' by H. Michaëlis and P. Passy, published by Carl Meyer in Hanover. We have here a work that is reliable, clearly printed, cheap, and complete in 330 moderate-sized pages. Critics will note with pleasure that Passy, in those cases in which his own usage has been generally condemned as vulgar or peculiar, has inserted alternative pronunciations: for instance, *mais, mes, les, des*, etc., are given both with the close and with the open sound of *e*. For "aspirate *h*," however, one cannot help wishing he had gone a little further, and left altogether unrecorded the decidedly provincial practice of sounding it. Many phoneticians, too, will object to the preference given to "lingual *r*." After the vocabulary we find an extremely concise statement of the main facts of French phonetics, followed by a most useful and interesting "list of the principal classes of divergences of pronunciation." As a frontispiece we have one of the best cuts yet published of the human vocal organs. The no-

tation used is that of the Association Phonétique; it serves its purpose very well. In the general make-up of the book there are only three things that impress the examiner unfavorably. Firstly, the vocabulary does not include proper names; we have, perhaps, no right to expect that it should, but a pronouncing dictionary of French proper names is sorely needed. Secondly, in groups of cognate words, the first part of each vocable, except the head of the series, is replaced by a dash; this practice will probably sometimes cause the practical user of the volume a slight inconvenience, for which the intended etymological lesson may seem but scanty compensation. In the third place, the figured pronunciation stands, in each case, before the accepted spelling, so that the alphabetical arrangement of the words is not the usual one, but that of the phonetic transcriptions; it follows that in order to find a word, one must either know how it is pronounced or be willing to hunt for it in several places. Although this scheme is doubtless the best one for pupils who are following the "new method," and has the additional advantage of emphasizing the importance of the spoken language, the wisdom of adopting such a plan must seem questionable to most of us; for surely at least nine-tenths of those who buy this dictionary will use it only as a guide to pronunciation.

—M. Gribovski is a young Russian writer who, some months before the death of Verlaine, came to Paris to visit the poet. He was provided with a letter of introduction, but did not know Verlaine's address, which he found at last, after explorations which began at the Café Procope and led him through a long series of lodging-houses before they were crowned with success. In the *Revue Hebdomadaire* of September 26 M. Gribovski tells his story, which gives an interesting glimpse at the last days of the author of 'Sagesse.' Verlaine received his visitor kindly, and talked to him with freedom. After some words about the literature of the day, in which Verlaine spoke with contempt of the *Décadents*, the stream of talk shifted towards politics. Gribovski had heard that Verlaine was more or less engaged with the Commune, and put two or three questions to him thereupon, but the poet gave no direct answer. "Terrible days they were!" he said. "France drew blood from her own heart. You have seen the skeleton of the Cour des Comptes. The Government has kept those ruins to show how insane Paris can be. Yes, I saw the Commune. I have seen many things in my life; but now I am only a poor poet, well content with the Government, which has never done me any harm. . . . Personally I have no leaning towards politics; that is a business I leave to others. . . . One of my friends who was compromised in the Commune fell into the hands of some good folk who saved him from trial and exile. Now he is bewailing his fate and groaning: 'Why didn't I go to the Isle of Pines? To-day I should be a deputy or a minister.' That gentleman has a vocation for politics. For my part I am contented with my lot." Here is another amusing bit of Verlaine's talk: "The other day a poor devil of a workman came to see me and said, 'Well, M. Verlaine, we've got to have a revolution.' 'What has got into you?' I said. 'Why, the newspapers say that the President wears white gaiters. The President of the workmen's republic in white gaiters; it is indecent!' I explained to the

poor man that Félix Faure could not avoid wearing white gaiters when he received General Dragomiroff; if he did, it might touch the prestige of our great country, for General Dragomiroff might think that she would not let her President have white gaiters. But I did not convince him and he went away saying: 'That makes no difference. It wouldn't be a bad thing to have a revolution, and you ought to write about it. The bourgeois are beginning to hold their noses too high.' "

TWELVE YEARS IN TURKEY.

Impressions of Turkey during Twelve Years' Wandering. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., LL.D. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

This little book of somewhat less than 300 pages is on the whole the best work on the Eastern question which has yet appeared, probably because Prof. Ramsay is so thoroughly acquainted with Asia Minor and the people who inhabit it. It is often said, and in the main correctly, that the strength of Turkey lies in Asia Minor, and it is precisely with Asia Minor, the home of the Turk, that Prof. Ramsay is familiar.

He commences in a very concrete manner by leading us to various Turkish villages, and giving us glimpses of the lives of the people, their habits, their mode of thought, their poverty, and their ignorance. Then we are taken on a specimen trip in Phrygia of twenty days' duration. All of this is delightful reading and full of interest, both to the archaeologist (for Prof. Ramsay travelled as an archaeologist), and also to the general reader, and is a very clever method of making us adopt for ourselves certain conclusions which he reached by the observations we are thus made to repeat. By the time we have finished these chapters we have concluded that the population of Asia Minor is far from homogeneous—it is in fact heterogeneous, even in its Mohammedan parts. We have also reached the conclusion that the Turks, although the most good-natured, kindly, and honest of the various peoples who constitute the population of Asia Minor, are the stupidest and the least progressive of all. Wherever a Turk seems to be particularly efficient we have been able to trace his efficiency to the fact that he is not by origin a Turk, but belongs to some other race which has adopted Mohammedanism. As for progress and skill, we have found out that they are confined to the Christians. Almost all trade is in their hands. The muleteers and the camel-drivers may be Turks, but the owners of the goods they carry are Christians; and if a Turk lives in anything better built than a hut, it is found to have been constructed by a Christian. Wherever skilled labor is required it is Christians who must perform it. "Only in certain districts where some manufacture has been produced from time immemorial, do you find Turks engaged in it, but the careful observer will entertain no doubt that they are only the older population Mohammedanized." We have also learned that the Government is curiously distinct from the people whom it governs—that it is, in fact, a mere agent of extortion in its relation to the common people, and that it is precisely these Turks, whom we think of as the dominant race in Asia Minor, who are, on the whole, the most oppressed by the Govern-

ment, because they are the most stupid, the poorest, and the least ingenious in evading oppression; and so the Turkish villagers hate and fear the officials, while at the same time they have a vast reverence for and loyalty to the Padishah, that is, the Sultan. But, in spite of their stupidity, Ramsay finds the Turkish peasants the most pleasant class with whom to deal, and their honesty and stolidity he regards as desirable qualities to be amalgamated with the brilliant faculties of the Greeks, the race which has the future of Asia Minor in its hands.

After having thus dealt with Asia Minor in the concrete, as it were, and introduced us to the people in their homes, the author sums up certain of his results in a chapter on the Mohammedan races of Asia Minor—the Turks and Turkmen, the Yuruks and Avshahrs, the Circassians, Bulgarians, and other recent refugees; the Kurds, with whom his experiences were peculiarly unfavorable; the Tatars, the Ansarieh, Yezidi, etc. Next he discusses the past and present in Asiatic Turkey, that we may see that the present conditions are no mere accident, but that there is and always has been a conflict in Asia Minor between East and West. The Greek contended with Oriental influences and pushed them backward, and under his rule the country took on at least a veneer of western civilization. Rome pursued the work of Greece in a more vigorous and far-reaching manner. It organized an empire which did much towards amalgamating the various peoples of Asia Minor into one. The Christian church was a still more efficient agent in the unification and civilization of the country; but neither of these great agencies succeeded fully in their work. Under the weak Byzantine empire came a reaction. As eastern tribes and nations poured into Asia Minor, the old Oriental tendencies made themselves felt once more, until at last the Orient replaced the Occident at Constantinople, and the Byzantine empire itself became an Oriental despotism, to which in time the Turks fell heir.

Ramsay's discussion of this process of the disintegration of Occidental civilization in Asia Minor is most interesting and suggestive. He points out that it was due, not to conquest in the sense in which we ordinarily use the term, but to the gradual overrunning of the country by nomad populations from the East, who separated and isolated the cities, rendering communication between them impossible; until, left each to itself, they began to retrograde, and finally the whole country fell back into a condition of Oriental barbarism. Now the tide is setting the other way, and "the steady, inexorable, irresistible spread of European, and mainly of Greek, influence in the western parts of Asia Minor is by far the most striking fact in modern Turkey." It is against this inexorable, irresistible spread of European influence that the present Sultan, Abd-ul-Hamid, has set himself to wage a fight so desperate that Ramsay compares him with Mithridates marshalling the hosts of the Orient to resist the invasion of Occidental Rome. To do this, to resist the invasion of Europe, he has undertaken to arouse Mohammedan fanaticism, and systematically to stir up every prejudice among the Mohammedan populations of his empire. The agents from Mecca who go through the country towns to make arrangements for the sacred pilgrimages, are no longer ignorant men, but highly trained and efficient propagandists, and Ramsay says

that the impressions made on himself and on better observers have been that the

"directors and preachers of the faith in Turkey have been engaged for a good many years in preparing the Mohammedan revival; the means whereby Turkish power is restored is always the same—massacre—and the preparation consists in preaching that it is a virtue and a merit before heaven to slay and spoil the infidels."

"Will the Sultan's policy be successful? Will the revival of Mohammedanism be permanent in Asia Minor? So far as the centre and west is concerned, it cannot be. The Moslems are dying out there. Even where the Greeks have not begun to settle, the Turks are diminishing in numbers owing to conscription, misgovernment, and moral causes on which I will not enter because I have avoided studying or observing them. . . . In the eastern regions it may be different for a time. . . . The Mohammedan revival has been far more carefully propagated in these lands, and for the moment it is successful by the usual Turkish method. . . . The Armenians will in all probability be exterminated, except the remnant that escapes to other lands. There can be little doubt that about 200,000 of them have actually been put to death by the Turks, and I believe that fully four times as many have either died of starvation and hardship, or have so suffered from the unspeakable brutality to which they have been subjected that they can never again be self-respecting men and women" (p. 156).

As the result of this historic study we are told that the present "situation in Turkey is not simply an uneasy balance between two opposing forces," but that "Orientalism is ebbing and dying in the country." The efforts which in their rivalry with one another the great Powers are making to sustain Turkey are futile. The almost superhuman struggle of the present Sultan to stem the inflowing tide of Western thought and Western progress is useless; and it is comforting to think that, in spite of Armenian and Cretan massacres, in spite of the apparent defeat of Christianity and civilization in the recent Greek war, Turkey is doomed to speedy downfall.

Having considered the races of Asia Minor and their characteristics and the past and present of Asiatic Turkey, Prof. Ramsay proceeds to discuss somewhat more in detail the evils existing in the present administration of the country, and the mistaken policy towards that country pursued by the English Government. He has already, in a previous chapter, suggested that in choosing officials to manage their Eastern policy both of the great English parties seem to select them "because of their skill in misrepresenting, or their power of misunderstanding, Turkish affairs." He finds it difficult to determine whether the Conservatives or the Liberals have been the worst bunglers in their management of the Eastern question. He finds no difference, so far as selfishness goes, between the English policy and that of Germany or Russia, and to him it seems that the wisest plan for England is to join hands with Russia. The policy latterly pursued by the English Government has been one admirably calculated to drive Germany and Russia together, and to lead all the Powers to resist English attempts to reform Turkey, because those attempts appear to be nothing else than an effort on the part of the English to obtain for themselves all that they possibly can. He is particularly severe on Lord Salisbury, feeling that no rational policy can be pursued in the East "till Lord Salisbury has given place to a successor"; and on Mr. Goschen, whom he "holds more responsible than any other single indi-

vidual" for the abandonment by the English of the system of trained military consuls in Turkey, and indirectly for the Armenian massacres. It was the policy of England which inspired the Armenians with those hopes which finally led to the massacre by the Turks, England abandoning them to their fate.

One chapter is devoted to that unfortunate people. Like most who have come in contact with them, Ramsay does not find the Armenians in their present condition a particularly attractive race. They are timid and cowardly, cringing, and ready to submit to almost everything, but this is an inevitable result of the oppression and slavery which they have undergone for centuries. The idea which has been fostered by the Turkish Government, that they are a set of unruly and turbulent conspirators, is, as he points out, simply ridiculous. It is only in the neighborhood of Zeltun that they seem to have any spirit left. But although they are now so servile and abject, Prof. Ramsay, in common with some other recent scholars, holds that they are identical in origin with the unruly Kurds, their traditional enemies and oppressors. "The Kurd is just a Mohammedan Armenian, and the Armenian is a Kurd passed through centuries of Christianity."

A most appreciative chapter is devoted to the American missionaries and their converts. Prof. Ramsay went to Turkey with a prejudice against the work of these men. He was driven by what he saw and observed to the conclusion that the work of the American missionaries in Turkey has been the strongest and the most beneficent influence for civilization in that country. It has been "zealously opposed and almost arrested by the present Sultan, with the support of the six European Powers." In the preface to the American edition, Prof. Ramsay exposes the absurdity of the statements made by American officials in 1895-96, that the missionaries have forced themselves into Turkey against the will of the Government, and have no legal rights and no claim to protection. He points out that they were supported and encouraged by three Sultans, and that "they stand on a firm basis of treaties, special enactments, and concessions." It is the present Sultan only who, in endeavoring to drive out all Western influences, has determined to compass the expulsion of the missionaries from the country and the destruction of their work.

Were we to make any criticism of this admirable book, it would be that Prof. Ramsay has pushed his theories of racial peculiarities and characteristics too far and accounts for too much by means of them. Are there no differences of character between individuals or even communities of the same race? Because Turks in general are stupid and unprogressive, does it follow that every individual Turk, or even every village of Turks, must be the same? Are there no other influences than those of heredity? The most striking instance of this inclination of Prof. Ramsay's to ascribe everything to race occurs in his discussion of the character of the present Sultan. According to him, Abdul-Hamid is not a Turk but an Armenian, and it is the nationality of his mother which has made itself felt in his character and his peculiar order of ability.

But this is, after all, a minor fault, and almost a virtue driven to excess. He who wishes to understand the Eastern question

in its latest phases cannot find a better and more trustworthy guide than Prof. Ramsay's 'Impressions of Turkey.'

A PRINCESS'S TRANSLATION.

The Mirror of the Sinful Soul: A Prose Translation from the French of a Poem by Queen Margaret of Navarre, made in 1544 by the Princess (afterwards Queen) Elizabeth, then eleven years of age. Reproduced in facsimile, with portrait, for the Royal Society of Literature of the United Kingdom, and edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Percy W. Ames, F.S.A., Librarian and Secretary, R.S.L. London: Asher & Co. 1897.

The above long title tells much, but not all, about the curious little volume it denotes. The poem by Queen Margaret (Marguerite d'Angoulême) here translated by the little Princess Elizabeth was published in 1531 (Margaret was then thirty-nine years old), and was her first publication. It is a religious poem of nearly fifteen hundred lines in rhymed decasyllables, which she entitled (following in the footsteps of more than one predecessor) "Le Miroir de l'ame pecheresse." The copy here beautifully facsimiled of the Princess Elizabeth's translation was made by herself, in a wonderfully admirable child's hand, and presented by her, in a cover apparently embroidered by herself, to her stepmother, Katharine Parr. This lady had shown her kindness. The little princess had had the misfortune to fall into disgrace with her father, and was banished from the court for a year. But she learned that the Queen always spoke of her, and kindly, when she wrote to the King (who was for a time at Boulogne), and Elizabeth sent her a letter of thanks (now in the Bodleian), one of the earliest of Elizabeth's letters, and, rather oddly, written in Italian. A few months afterward she sent this translation as a New Year's gift to the Queen. It was printed four years later, but the printed volume is very rare.

Elizabeth, in her manuscript, does not mention Margaret's name, yet there was a connecting link between the woman-author and the child-translator. Anne Boleyn went to France in 1515 in the train of Mary Tudor on the occasion of Mary's marriage to Louis XII., and during the ten years she remained there it is said she for a time belonged to the court of Margaret herself, then the Duchesse d'Alençon. It is therefore not unlikely that Elizabeth's copy of "Le Miroir" came to her from her mother, always a lover of all things French, and, to continue surmises, it may have been a wedding gift from Margaret to her sometime acquaintance. The second edition of "Le Miroir" appeared at the moment of Anne's marriage. It is curious that Elizabeth not only does not herself mention Margaret, even in her prefatory letter to Queen Katharine, but omits the name where it occurs at the close of the poem almost as a signature:

"Ne puis faillir à rendre la louenge
De tant de biens, qu'avoir je ne merite,
Qu'il luy plaist faire à moy sa Marguerite."

"Wich pleaseth hym to geue me," Elizabeth translates, recognizing, probably, that there was an untranslatable play on the word Marguerite.

The contemporary accounts of Elizabeth attribute to her, even in early youth, love

of study and quickness of apprehension. She knew, she writes the Queen,

"that pusillanimité and ydlenes are most repugnant vnto a reasonable creature: and that (as the philosopher sayeth) euen as an instrument of yron or of other metayle waxeth soone rusty, onles it be continually occupied, euen so shalle the witte of a man, or woman, waxe dull, and vnapt to do or vnderstand anything pfitelly, onles it be alwayes occupied vpon some maner of study. Wiche thinges considered, hath moued so small a portion as god hath lente me to proue what I could do. And therefore haue I (as for a seye [an assay or essay] or beginning, following the right notable saying of the proverbe aforsayd) translated this lytell booke out of frenche rhyme, in to englishe prose ioyning ye sentences together as well as the capacite of my symple witte, and small lerning coulede extendre themselves."

Even if she had some assistance in her work, it has unmistakable indications of the "symple witte and small lerning" of a child, which make only the more apparent her remarkable precocity of intelligence. The youthfulness of this "eminent hand" is betrayed chiefly by passages of quaint literalness that are quite incomprehensible without the original; but there was little occasion for her saying: "I knowe yt as for my parte (as well spirituall as manuall) there is nothinge done as it shulde be." The examination of this translation with the original is a very interesting study of language (as Florio's translation of Montaigne), for Elizabeth writes the "Elizabethan" tongue, as the passage just quoted shows, completely different in "moral" character from sixteenth-century French. There is a sort of delicate maidenly shyness and graceful awkwardness about the native diction of the matron Margaret, a rich maturity and noble vigor in the language that was the national inheritance of the child Elizabeth. A few extracts, but they must be lengthy ones, will show this more vividly than remarks about it can do. The poem is, as it was entitled when the translation was printed, "A Godly Medytacyon of the Christen soule concerninge a love towards God and hys Christe." It is one of the least interesting of Margaret's compositions, and one can but pity the little girl who, day after day, worked away so carefully at its mystical unintelligibility. The prologue opens thus:

"Si vous lisez cette œuvre toute entiere
Arrestez vous, sans plus, à la matiere,
En excusant le rythme et le langage,
Voyant que c'est d'une femme l'ouvrage,
Qui n'a en soy science, ne sçavoir,
Fors un desir, que chacun puisse voir
Que fait le don de Dieu le Createur,
Quand il luy plaist justifier un cœur."

"If thou doest rede thys whole worke, be-holde rather the matter, and excuse the speche, considering it is the worke of a woman: wiche hath in her neyther science or knowledge, but a desyre that eche one might se, what the gifte of god doth when it pleaseth hym to iustifie the harte of a man."

The conception of the direct communication of the soul with "God and his Christ" without the intervention of the Virgin or the Saints, which is dwelt upon in this "meditation," caused the University of the Sorbonne to condemn the book as heretical; and the study of these pages may have done something to confirm Elizabeth's Protestantism. The following lines are characteristic of the tone:

"Il n'attend pas qu'humblement je le prie,
Ne que voyant mon enfer à lui crie:
Par son Esprit fait un remissement
Dans mon cœur, grand inenarrablement;
Et postulant le don, dont le sçavoir
Est incongnu à mon foible povoir,
Et lors soudain cest ignoré soupçir

Me va causant un tout nouveau desir
En me monstrant le bien que j'ay perdu
Par mon peché, lequel bien m'est rendu
Et redonné par sa grace et bonté
Qui tout peché a vaincu et domté."

"He doth not tary tyll I humbly do praye hym, or that (seyng my hell and damnacion) I do cry upon hym; ffor with hys spirite, he doth make a waillinge withyn my hart greater than I, or any man can declare, which asketh the gifte whereof ye virtue is unknown to my lytell power. And this, the same unknowne sighe, doth bringe me a newe desyre, showinge the good that I haue loste by my sinne, wiche is giuen me againe, through his grace and bontie, wiche hath overcome all synnes."

The poem is full of references to passages in the Bible, and it is interesting to note the English rendering of these, before the King James version:

"Mais quand ce doux et gracieux prier
Ne me serroit, lors vous venez crier:
Venez à moy, vous tous qui par inbeur
Estes laissez et charges de douleur;
Je suis celui qui vous accepteray,
Et de mon pain refectionneray."

"But, when thou sawest that thys switte and graciouse speking did me no good, than thou begannest to cry: Come vnto me all ye wiche are werey with labour; I am I that shall receyue, and feed you with my bread."

And then the poor Soul utters what might indeed sound like heresy:

"Las, tous ces mots ne voulois escouter;
Mais encores je venois à douter
Si c'estoit vous, ou si, par adventure
Ce n'estoit rien qu'une simple escriture."

"Alas I wolde not harke vnto all these words; ffor I doubted whether it were thou, or els a symple writtinge, that so sayd."

"Enfer est donc par luy du tout destruit,
Peché vaincu, qui tant ha eu de bruyt.
Goulu Enfer, où est vostre defense?
Vilain peché, où est vostre puissance?
O Mort! où est icy vostre victoire,
Vostre aiguillon, dont tant est de memoire?
En nous cuidant donner mort, donnez vie,
Et le rebours faites de vostre envie.
Et vous, Peché, qui à damnation
Voulez tirer tous, sans remission,
Vous nous servez d'esperon et d'eschelle
Pour atteindre Jerusalem la belle."

"Than is hell and synne ouercome by hym. O glouty hell, where is thy defence? Thou villayne synne, where is thy power? O death, where is thy stinge and victory, wiche are so muche spoken of? In stedde of death, thou geuest vs life, and so doest thou contrary vnto thy wille. And also, thou sinne, which wolde drawe euery body vnto damnacion, thou doest serue vs of a ladder, for to resche vnto the goodly cite of Iherusalem."

One more quotation, showing the author almost at her best (in this poem) and the translator almost at her worst, we should like to make, beginning with the line, "Las, qu'est cecy? jettant en hault ma veüe," but space forbids. The facsimile of this manuscript is beautifully executed, and makes a charming volume adorned with the pretty and carefully chosen portrait of the girl-princess. A book-lover cannot but be grateful for such a book, even though it be, like this, a mere curiosity. A yet stronger gratitude would be excited if so much money, time, and labor as has been generously spent on this volume were given to a similar delightful reproduction of some work in itself more intrinsically valuable.

A Passing World. By Beattie Rayner Belloc. London: Ward & Downey. 1897.

One is not usually considered to be on safe ground when he ventures an allusion to a lady's age, and even though Mme. Belloc herself reminds us that she is now numbered among the veterans, it may appear ungracious to dwell upon the fact. We mention it only because we find it necessary to do so in attempting to criticise the volume of

biographical essays which she sends abroad under the rather regretful title of 'A Passing World.' Dr. Holmes was impressed, on the occasion of his last visit to London, with the existence there of a unique feminine type, the well-preserved and entertaining woman who has for three or four generations been on close terms of familiarity with her leading contemporaries. When once her ganglia have been pleasantly affected by tea of a certain strength, she unfolds her personal or traditional knowledge of the world, even unto Horace Walpole, past whom social memory seems not to run. We should feel tempted to class Mme. Belloc among these hardy perennials if there were a little more trace of political association in her reminiscences. Those, at least, of the intimacies which she sees fit to describe are of a literary or an ecclesiastical character. Already well known, through a famous autobiography, as the close friend of George Eliot, she shows us that Rogers, Browning, and Rossetti were also of her circle. A political dash alone is needed to create the feeling that she has been in the thick of London ever since the Queen's accession.

The keynote of Mme. Belloc's recollections is universal benevolence. She tells us that she has repeatedly been taxed with failing to say all she might have said about her acquaintance. She deals with "a generation of writers of whom very many were close personal friends. . . . Nobody, unless utterly devoid of observation, can pass from youth to age without knowing the secrets of many lives and the inner histories of many households." But the task of revealing the seamy side of life Mme. Belloc leaves to the writer of fiction. "We have ample records in imaginative literature of every kind of iniquity. Let these suffice. But of our own people, of those with whom we lived and loved, and to whom we owe, through their writings, such a debt of gratitude for much of the present happiness of our daily lives, surely it is better to observe rigorously the old-fashioned rule, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum*." This commendable purpose is kept in view throughout. Mme. Belloc, while disclaiming gossip, does not fall, as many with equally fair professions have done, into innuendo.

Good conversation often enough makes tame reading. We think that the contents of Mme. Belloc's memoirs conveyed orally could not fail to charm any one who might be permitted to hear her discuss men and subjects freely. In cold print the spell of the living word is lost, and occasionally one finds it hard to resist the idea that a flood of words is outrunning the staple of the argument. Her references to dead and living are almost always laudatory, and, apart from throwing here and there a side light, she leaves her distinguished friends pretty much where they were in our estimation and knowledge when we cut the leaves of her book. The opening chapter, from which the volume takes its title, is a potpourri of reminiscences, written for the purpose, one gathers, of showing that the literary leaders of the early Victorian era form a galaxy unequalled for splendor "since Alfred learnt his letters at his mother's knee." An exception is made in favor of "the one Apparition of William Shakespeare," but the rest of the Elizabethans are deemed unworthy of notice.

Judging from her ten other papers, Mme. Belloc's dominant interests are Anglo-Saxon

unity and Roman Catholicism. She shows a considerable range of reading in American history, and is keen to secure relations of permanent friendship. "It is not only that we have a common heritage in 'Piers Plowman,' or Queen Elizabeth, about whose good or bad deeds there is as much divergence in any American district as there is in any London parish, but that we are like Siamese twins, inextricably and, as some would think, fatally connected by a broad band of living flesh on which are inscribed the newest editions of Lecky and Spencer, Ruskin and Browning, Swinburne and Christina Rossetti." While convinced that Mme. Belloc's judgment on this point is excellent, we cannot commend it when applied to the candid solution of our local problems. She allows the United States one safe course, and one only—that which leads to Rome. *Extra ecclesiam nulla salus* has ordinarily been confined to theology. Mme. Belloc would give it a far wider extension. "I regard it as certain that the one influence which can prevent the people of the United States from pursuing a path of hopeless divergence in language, custom, and the infinitely more important realm of morals away from the standards painfully wrought out in Europe during nineteen centuries, is that of Catholicism." Mme. Belloc is certainly more at home in dealing with Augusta Theodosia Drane and recent English Catholicism than in devising schemes for the welding of American populations. Among her discursive papers those which have given us the most pleasure are the sketches of Dr. Parr, the great Grecian, and of Dr. Ulysse Trélat, director of the Salpêtrière, whose 'La Folie Lucide' gave Zola the hint of his Rougon-Macquart series. Both are delineations of character rather than biographical abstracts, and both are excellent.

Mme. Belloc writes with much information, graciousness, and impersonality. If she anywhere falls short of expectation, it is in the specific gravity of her subject-matter; not that her topics are too light, but that her treatment of them is slightly under weight. We may note, in conclusion, that her proof-reader has made more slips than one expects to find in company with such beautiful type and paper.

1. *Concordance to the Greek Testament*: According to the Texts of Westcott and Hort, Tischendorf, and the English Revisers. Edited by Rev. W. F. Moulton, M.A., D.D., and Rev. A. S. Geden, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. Quarto. Pp. xii, 1037.

This work is one of the incidental results of Textual Criticism of the New Testament. Thorough students of the Greek Testament have virtually abandoned the use of the *Textus Receptus*, so called, which for two hundred and fifty years held sway, and have substituted the modern critical editions of Tischendorf and Westcott and Hort. This reversion to the older text, found in the newer editions, has diminished the value of some of the standard helps to study. The Greek Concordance of Bruder, a work of monumental accuracy and patience, fails to meet the present requirements. The handy Greek-English Concordance of Hudson recognized the various readings accepted by Tischendorf, and, with the careful editing of Dr. Ezra Abbot, became the favorite with those who were aware of its existence and excellence. But to make it convenient in size,

the editors gave only references, not citations, and noted only the peculiar uses of the more common particles.

Prof. Moulton and Mr. Geden have adapted the general method of Bruder to the modern critical text. As might be expected, that of Westcott and Hort is accepted as the standard, but no reading adopted by Tischendorf (eighth edition) or by the English Revisers has been ignored. The American Revisers differ from the English in regard to about thirty readings, and this Concordance does not refer to these variations, a few of them quite important (e. g., Acts 20:28). But nearly all of these appear either in Tischendorf or in Westcott and Hort, so that this defect can easily be remedied by those using the work. The editors have assumed, and with good reason, that the judgment of the Revisers coincided with that of modern editors in many cases (not affecting the English rendering) where the Revisers have made no record of their decision. Marginal readings, given by the critical editors or recognized in the Revised Version, have in all cases found a place in the Concordance, and a few appear "for which Tischendorf expressed a preference subsequent to the publication of his eighth edition" (preface, p. vii). Accordingly, the work covers the established results of recent textual criticism.

The labor of preparing the volume, immense in its details, has been chiefly performed by Mr. Geden, for Prof. Moulton was prevented by serious illness (as he carefully explains in the preface) from doing even the share in revising the work that he had intended. In citing passages good judgment has been exercised as to the limits of the citation, a matter of no small difficulty. The editor rightly determined that it was better to include too much than too little. Some abbreviations have been employed in citing the text; and under the head of the more familiar particles there are given series of references, not citations. But a classification, intelligible and exhaustive, is usually made in these cases. By means of signs attached to the words, at the head of the citations, an indication is afforded of the lexical peculiarities of New Testament Greek, as compared with classical and Septuagint usage. By "classical" is meant, according to the editors' divisions, the usage of Greek writers earlier than the Christian era. The Hebrew text is appended to all citations that are directly quoted from the Old Testament by the New Testament writer.

A work of this character is of little value if the editing and proof-reading have not been exceptionally accurate. There is every evidence that special pains have been taken to secure such accuracy in this Concordance. Errors will doubtless be discovered. Nearly three pages, at the close of the volume, are devoted to those noticed after the body of the work was printed, and Mr. Geden will receive notice of many more from those who use the Concordance. But the book is exceptionally accurate. The Greek type is clear; the columns are wide; the matter is not unnecessarily crowded. The size of the volume is not greater than that of most important lexicons. The editors and publishers alike are to be congratulated on the results of their efforts, and New Testament scholars will gladly welcome this addition to the standard books of reference for their department of study.

The Land of the Dollar. By G. W. Steevens. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

When a writer pays us such a handsome compliment as to declare that "the age of chivalry is not gone; until America it never came," we feel him to be entitled to criticize us with the utmost freedom. Every true American would much rather be complimented on his treatment of women than on anything else in the world, save, perhaps, his courage in battle, and Mr. Steevens "lays it on" pretty thick, for he thinks that all true Americans will toil and slave and "kill themselves at forty, that their women may live in luxury and become socially and intellectually superior to themselves." This they do, too, "without even an idea that there is any self-sacrifice in it" (p. 314). On the next page he stretches the limit of life for the male American to "fifty or so," but beyond that he will not go. "Virtually there are no old in America at all," though, strangely enough, even the American woman, spoiled by chivalry, "is old at thirty." At what age she dies is not stated.

Mr. Steevens was here last year during the Presidential campaign, and his book consists of letters written originally for a newspaper. His trip he calls a "Scamper through the States," and his letters reflect the impressions of a scampering and slightly incoherent well-wisher. When he reports things that he actually heard or saw, he is at his best. Chapter xviii., descriptive of what he saw in Wisconsin, has some very good touches, especially the discovery of a type new to him—that of a man, in this instance an old man, who does nothing "in particular," is "generally at home," and, when this is not the case, "works some at moving houses." The prevailing economical opinions are very neatly hit off. "They do not believe that protection will raise the prices of the manufactured articles they buy, looking to competition to keep them down. When you point out that with free trade competition would keep them down lower still, they agree with you, but continue to believe in protection" (p. 161). On the subject of Anglophobia, he puts what he noticed in an original way: "His worst fault is that he dislikes us. But that—though it sound a paradox—is because he respects us. . . . They resent the existence of a nation they are bound to respect."

These are favorable specimens of Mr. Steevens's powers; his overheard American talk also is sometimes good, as, for instance, the dialogue on the race problem between a profane Northern drummer and a Southernized Canadian. The drummer says that "in a hotel up North" he went into the dining-room,

"and there was a nigger head-waiter, sir. Yes, sir—a nigger, ordering white girls about; I tell you that made me tired. Then this nigger head-waiter came and showed me to a table with three niggers! When I was paying my bill to go to another hotel the clerk said, 'Why do you object to sit with the colored gentlemen?' 'I didn't see any gentlemen,' says I; 'I saw three buck niggers, if that's what you mean.' 'Oh,' he says, 'that race problem will never be solved.' 'Yes,' I says, 'but it is solved in the South. It adjusts itself. Treat them as servants—that's all they're fit for—and if one gets fresh shoot him.' 'Quite right,' said the Canadian." (P. 101.)

One thing Mr. Steevens heard in Ohio which he thinks reflects the "dubious side" of democracy: "If Bill McKinley gets in, he ought to do something for Canton." He seems to

think that Bryan is a demagogue of a high order, and superior as an orator to McKinley, who, he says, was "not interesting," though "he pointed out with great force that Portage County was the finest in the States." A shrewd observation is that "no democrat" (he might have said no man) "likes to vote a blank negative" (p. 173). The Jingo view of the New Navy is amusingly propounded (p. 141). The Jingo, it seems, hold that as the present pensions of \$140,000,000 a year "fall in," we shall be able to build "a dozen battleships a year without taking a cent out of anybody's pocket." And that means, he thoughtfully adds, "the naval supremacy of the world."

A Korean-English Dictionary. By James S. Gale. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh. 1897.

In the making of a lexicon of the Korean language we behold a process much like that which has resulted in the Webster or Century Dictionary, except that the evolution has been one of years instead of centuries. Coming into the once forbidden land and attempting to master the written language as well as the colloquial, we find the first (French) missionaries annotating, collecting, classifying, with no native guide or model, just as did the first makers of Anglo-Saxon glossaries in mediæval times. In Korea, the scholars devoting themselves wholly to "learning," that is, Chinese, neglected both the vernacular and the marvellously simple *en-mun* or alphabet.

Mr. Gale's great work is a quarto of 1,160 pages, containing about 45,000 words and nearly 12,000 Chinese characters. Its thoroughness and accuracy are remarkable, but further it is a real triumph of keenness and perseverance in the pursuit of words as they fly "winged" from the lips of "the best speakers in the capital" (Séoul). Note-book in hand, Mr. Gale pursued his task during six years, often absenting himself for months from all men of the Western world. The result is a credit to American scholarship. His predecessors in this line of achievement are first the authors of the Korean-French Dictionary, prepared under the supervision of Père Robert, now the honored senior member of the French mission in Korea. Mr. James Scott of the British consular service followed with a Korean-English vocabulary. The Rev. Horace Underwood of the American Presbyterian Mission prepared a Korean-English and English-Korean dictionary in two volumes, in which Mr. Gale had a hand, and which was reviewed in these columns. Now, Mr. Gale, having read the novels and what might be called the "street literature," has given a view of the language and a storehouse of the coinage of thought which excels in richness, by some 7,000 distinct words, the French dictionary of the year 1880. No pretension is made to its being an "unabridged" dictionary, which at this stage of knowledge and the organization of it is an impossibility. It is believed that there are 50,000 words in the Korean vocabulary, a number which might be increased to millions if the manifold forms of the verbs were added. The average number of grammatical forms to a verb is 300, and one-fifth of the whole vocabulary is "either a verb or capable of verb-form."

It would be ungracious to criticise this scholarly work for its omissions, yet it would have gained vastly if, in addition to mere definition and the Chinese equivalent and

Korean variations of form, there could have been, in the case of the more important words, several full sentences showing their use in literary combinations. The English or Romanized form of the word is not given, which is also a drawback for those who might wish merely to consult the lexicon. Valuable appendices contain the *en-mun* or native script equivalents for the imperial names and time-periods of China and Japan, and other apparatus necessary to show the expression in Korea's wonderfully true, simple, and efficient alphabet of the more cumbersome Chinese forms used in the countries on either side of "the little outpost state." Typographically, the work is remarkable for elegance and accuracy, as coming from the press of the Yokohama Bunsha, the whole having been wrought by Japanese workmen.

Historical Memorials of Ely Cathedral. In two lectures delivered in Cambridge in the summer of 1896 by Charles William Stubbs, D.D., Dean of Ely. I. The Shrine of St. Audrey. II. Alan de Walsingham. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

This little volume is not the first instance of a book in which the notes and appendices are more valuable than the text, but it is one more such instance. The text consists, as the title-page announces, of two lectures, which are, naturally, conversational, sentimental, sociable, chatty, and extremely ecclesiastical. On the other hand, the notes and addenda contain an unusual amount of valuable matter for reference. In the first place there are forty pages of "Chronological Annals of Ely from the foundation of the Monastery to its dissolution," namely, from 563 to 1539 A. D. This is drawn up in the form of a table with ten parallel columns, showing the chronological events, the authorities for the dates, the succession of kings of England and abbots or bishops of Ely, the architectural features of the monastery and its church, etc. This is full and detailed, and shows all the signs of having been thoroughly well done. Contemporary events on the Continent are sparingly introduced, but, as it seems, with great judgment. Thus, the introduction of the words, "Coming of the Friars," between 1216 and 1219, and of the name "Simon de Montfort," between 1229 and 1241, mark important cases of close connection between the Continent and central England; and the date of Dante's birth and death and of the Brunelleschi dome at Florence are memoranda of important intellectual triumphs contemporaneous with epochs in the history of the Ely buildings. The Black Death and the Peasant Revolt give explanation enough of the absence of architectural achievements during those terrible times. In the last page of the table comes mention of those events which heralded the fall of the monastery and the taking of the great church as a cathedral—such events, namely, as Erasmus's 'Praise of Folly' in 1506, More's 'Utopia' in 1516, and Tyndale's Translation of the Bible in 1525.

Following this table we have a very useful plan of the Cathedral and of the ancient monastery buildings, so far as their foundations and substructures have been traced. References from 1 to 74 explain these, and carry explanation enough to the student, who will also consult the chrono-

logical annals, of the historical development of the buildings. The notes to Lecture I. occupy as many pages as the lecture itself and are in finer print. The first incident in these is the analysis of the famous old lines which tell how the monks sang at Ely as Knut rowed by, and how the king told his *enites* to row nearer the land that they might hear the monks sing. The lines have been given in the text both in intelligible modern English and in a facsimile of the original monkish script. But in the notes Dr. Skeat, the first living authority on such matters, analyzes these four lines in the most complete fashion, and gives a highly amusing series of transcripts as follows: (1) a literal transcript of the text, which he pronounces the work of a Norman monk who had not half learned English; (2) a corrected transcript in the true spelling of the period, or, in other words, a schoolmaster's correction of the stupid boy's bad orthography; and (3) the same words in the correct spelling of Knut's own time, in which time, certainly, these words were never sung. The last-named form of the quatrain certainly resembles English as little as any piece of Teutonic writing can. Finally, Skeat, with his accustomed minute interest in things of this kind, gives the "pronunciation in modern English spelling" of the corrected transcript. That is to say, No. 4 explains, to him who will follow the accentuation and the scansion carefully, the exact sound of the four lines as a twelfth-century scholar would have read them.

This entertaining piece of antiquarianism is succeeded by notes on the Draining of the Fens, on the Ely Manuscript, "Liber Ellenensis" itself, of which more copies than one exist (the contents of the third book of this same historical manuscript running to 127 sections), and, finally, a long account of St. Audrey, that is to say, St. Etheldreda, and of the sculptures illustrating her life and the legends about her which exist in the church.

The notes of the second lecture are nearly as full as those of the first, and these are devoted mainly to the monastery rolls and the accounts of expense, not of the buildings alone, but also of the daily life of the monks and their masters. In the course of this discussion there occurs an interesting note on the ancient bells, their position in the wooden tower at the crossing of the nave and transept, and the probable position of the ringer during the fourteenth century. There is also an account of the sculptured heads of the persons famous in the Cathedral's history.

The lectures themselves are entitled "The Shrine of St. Awdrey" and "Alan de Walsingham." They are accordingly devoted, the first to the Cathedral, once the Abbey Church, and especially to St. Awdrey's connection with it, and the second, to the man who was sacrist of the Cathedral from 1321 to 1341 and thereafter prior and bishop-elect—Alan de Walsingham, to whom is accredited the building of the celebrated Octagon. This remarkable structure occupies what is known as the Crossing, that is to say, the meeting-place of the four arms of a cruciform church. At Ely, an attempt has been made to produce the semblance of a cupola carried on pendentives; and as the plan could hardly be carried out in stone, the whole was executed in oak in a semblance of Gothic vaulting. This unique per-

formance, a thing almost inconceivable to those who have studied the spirit of the Gothic architects, deserves all the inquiry and remark which has been bestowed upon it. Whether the conclusions are favorable and the student agrees with Dean Stubbs in thinking this an extremely important piece of mediæval building, or whether he thinks it the worst blot on the record of Gothic architecture in England, is another matter, depending entirely on the point of view. Is construction, and design resulting therefrom, the important thing, or is a copied design, carried out in material foreign to the construction, as in wood at Ely or in plaster at Chicago, equally worthy of admiration? That question will never be finally settled, and the advocates of the second theory are having it their own way at present, in this country, at least.

The illustrations include three valuable photogravures and a couple of half-tone prints, as well as a number of drawings by Miss H. M. James (reproduced in line-cut) which express the architectural forms unusually well. They are made, evidently, by a person who has felt an interest in building considered as building and not as a piece of sentimental ecclesiology. It is, of course, not to be expected that the mediæval sculpture should be adequately rendered by any such processes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbott, C. C. *Travels in a Tree-Top. The Freedom of the Fields.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$3.
 Abbott, Rev. T. K. *Commentary on Ephesians and Colossians.* [International Critical Commentary.] Scribners. \$2.50.
 Adams, Prof. G. B. *The Growth of the French Nation.* Macmillan. \$1.25.
 Blountelle-Burton, John. *The Clash of Arms.* Appletons. \$1.
 Boole, Mary E. *The Mathematical Psychology of Gray and Boole.* London: Sonnenschein; New York: Putnam. \$1.25.
 Campbell, Arthur. *A Ride in Morocco, and Other Sketches.* Toronto: William Briggs. \$1.
 Chamberlain, H. S. *Richard Wagner.* London: Dent; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 De Leon, T. C. *The Pride of the Mercers.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.
 Eckstein, Ernst. *Cyparissus: A Romance of the Isles of Greece.* New York: Geo. Gottsberger Peck. 75c.
 Emerson, E. W. *A Correspondence between John Sterling and Ralph Waldo Emerson.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
 Frankel, F. D. *A Victim of Gossip.* G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
 Gardner, E. A. *A Handbook of Greek Sculpture.* Macmillan. \$2.50.
 Harris, Prof. George. *Inequality and Progress.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
 Higbee, D. In "God's Country." A Southern Romance. American Publishers Corporation. \$1.
 Johnston, Annie F., and Bacon, Alphon F. *Songs Yeane.* Boston: C. Page & Co. \$1.25.
 Kemble, E. W. *The Blackberries, and their Adventures.* R. H. Russell. \$1.50.
 Lincoln, Jennie G. *An Unwilling Maid.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
 Little Grown-Ups. Illustrated. F. A. Stokes Co. \$2.
 McMaster, Prof. J. B. *A School History of the United States.* American Book Co. \$1.
 Melgs, W. M. *The Life of Charles Jared Ingersoll.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
 Moore, L. B. *The Death of Falstaff, and Other Poems.* Baltimore: Cushing & Co. \$1.50.
 Nutt, Alfred. *The Voyage of Bran. Vol. II.* London: David Nutt.
 Page, Prof. J. M. *Ordinary Differential Equations.* Macmillan. \$1.25.
 Parkhurst, H. E. *Song Birds and Water Fowl.* Scribners. \$1.50.

- Remington, Frederic. *Drawings.* R. H. Russell. \$5.
 Rives, Amélie. *A Damsel Errant.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
 Roosevelt, Theodore. *American Ideals, and Other Essays, Social and Political.* Putnam. \$1.50.
 Roswell, Mary C. *History of France.* Whittaker. 75c.
 Sangster, Margaret E. *Life on High Levels.* Eaton & Mains. 90c.
 Sheppard, Nathan. *Heroic Stature.* Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. \$1.
 Singing Verses for Children. Macmillan. \$2.
 Skinner, C. M. *With Feet to the Earth.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.
 Sloane, Prof. W. M. *Life of Napoleon Bonaparte.* Vol. IV. Century Co.
 Smith, Marion C. Dr. Marks, Socialist. Cincinnati: Editor Publishing Co.
 Smith, Mary P. W. *The Young Puritans of Old Hadley.* Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.25.
 Spurgeon, A. D. *Her Physician.* F. T. Neely. 25c.
 Stedman, Edmund C. *Poems Now First Collected.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 St. Leger, Hugh. *The "Rover's" Quest: A Story of Foam, Fire, and Fight.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.
 Stoddard, W. O. *The Lost Gold of the Montezumas.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
 Sulz, Prof. James. *Children's Ways.* Appletons. \$1.25.
 Swift, Benjamin. *The Tormentor.* Scribners. \$1.50.
 Taine, H. A. *Journeys through France.* Henry Holt & Co. \$2.50.
 Tennyson, Alfred Lord. *A Memoir by his Son.* 2 vols. Macmillan. \$10.
 The Colonial Laws of New York. 5 vols. Albany: James B. Lyon.
 The Confessions of Rousseau. New edition, thoroughly revised, corrected, and extended. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 The Living Age. July-Sept., 1897. Boston: Living Age Co.
 Van Dyke, Henry. *Little Rivers.* [Cameo Edition.] Scribners. \$1.25.
 Vivian, T. J. *Seven Smiles and a Few Fibs.* F. T. Neely. 50c.
 Wyatt, A. J. "Cymbeline." [Arden Shakspeare.] Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.
 Yonge, Charlotte M. *Founded on Paper.* Whittaker. \$1.25.
 Zimmermann, Alice. *Old Tales from Greece.* Whittaker. 75c.

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